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MOVING UP DOWN ON THE FARM

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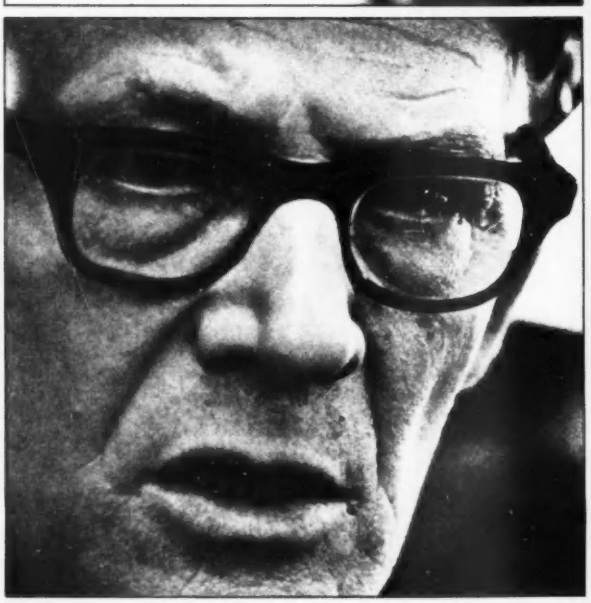
Farms, Ladders, and Books



The only job ladder most farmworkers ever climb is one used to pluck the harvest from fruit trees. But farmwork is changing, quickly and substantially. The number of farms is dwindling, and so is the number of farmworkers. The average size of the U.S. farm, however, is increasing. And bigger farms and fewer workers add up to mechanization. Long gone are the days when farmwork meant walking behind a plow, milking a cow by hand, and walking the fields to reap a crop. Manpower on the Nation's farms is being supplanted by horsepower—the kind that comes from an internal combustion engine.

Farming has become a complex business. It requires not only workers who can operate and repair expensive machinery, but also people who know how to handle chemical pesticides and fertilizers, and others who understand the marketing and financial side of modern agriculture.

This evolving farm labor force—how it functions and how it might be made to function better—is the subject of a research project being carried out by the Rural Economics Institute for the Manpower Administration. Institute researchers are observing and cataloging the tasks performed by farmworkers. From these observations they hope to develop a formal structure of farm jobs—jobs that can be described with reasonable precision and which will offer farmworkers a reasonable chance to move up rather than to move on. MANPOWER assistant editor Pat Marshall recently took a look at this effort to build a farm job ladder, and her report on how the construction is going begins on page 2.

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Ellis Rottman

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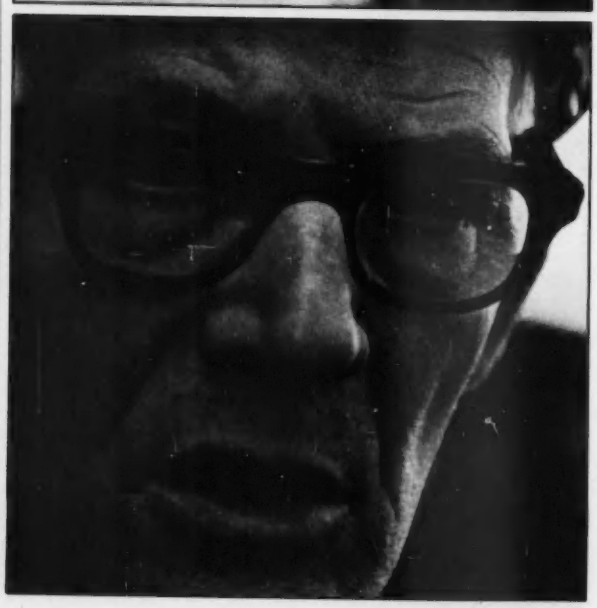

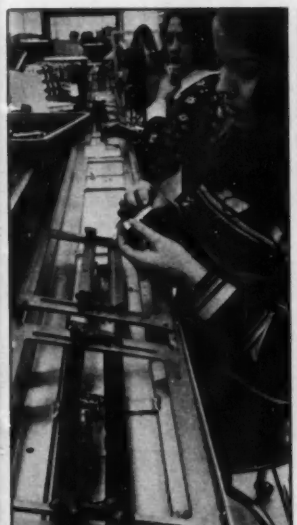

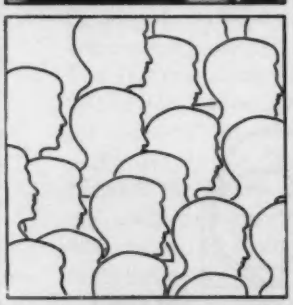

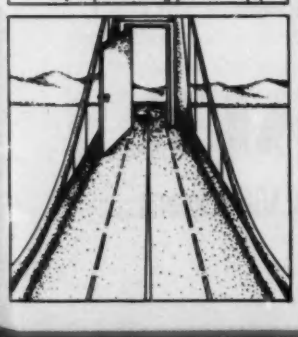

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by Patricia Marshall

MOVING UP DOWN ON THE FARM

Researchers Explore Ways to Build Job Ladders for Agricultural Workers

Who's a farmworker?

Does anyone know for sure anymore?

It's not hard to identify the man on a plow. But how about a welder who repairs large-scale machinery on the farm? How about a forklift operator who moves large containers from tree to truck? Then there are students and housewives who work on farms only a couple of months a year.

All these workers are important in today's agriculture. As the Nation's farms mechanize, adopt new techniques, and grow larger, two trends show up in the farm manpower sector. Needs are increasing for skilled workers who can run complex farm machinery and keep it in operating condition. Also, the farmer is using new sources of seasonal labor. Mechanization is drying up the migrant streams, one of the traditional reservoirs of short-term help, and farmers now get most of this help closer to home. From 1968 to 1972, people who were not employed most of the year, the greatest number of them students and housewives, made up about 60 percent of the U.S. hired farm labor force.

These trends create some important manpower questions. What is to become of workers who have made their living on farms—must they all be displaced by machines, or can some be retrained for new jobs in agriculture as old jobs fade away? And can anything be done to help farmers get the skilled workers they now need?

In a research project for the Manpower Administration, the Rural Economics Institute, a division of the Social Development Corporation, is turning up some possible answers to these questions. The Institute study—it carries the title, "Farm Job Ladder Demonstration Project"—covers an analysis of the jobs performed on six California farms; the rationale for specific practices; the methods used to hire, train, and promote workers; and the season-to-season employment patterns.

Using this information, researchers are suggesting changes in the number of workers employed the year round as well as in the content of their jobs. Proposed job classifications, for example, assign individual workers a variety of specific tasks of about equal difficulty. The Institute hopes to show that the redesign of farm jobs will meet present-day needs and benefit both farmers and their employees. The farmer stands to gain by building a regular work force and by being able to shed tasks, such as machinery repair, that have consumed much of the time he should be spending on broad management matters. Farmworkers would be able to advance as they acquire skills and would have job security.

In 1971, the University of California at Davis concluded a 3-year study in which the University sought to uncover educational needs in California's agriculture. It found that rural employers considered the lack of qualified workers to be their major personnel problem. The need to train or retrain present workers, farmers said, was the second most pressing need.

All Jobs Described

Researchers then sought to identify and describe all agricultural jobs in order to develop guidelines for education and training programs. After thousands of interviews with the employers and their workers, University research coordinator James W. Becket reported that traditional farm labor usage is best described as "unstructured."

He contended that as long as a great mass of people was available to do farmwork by hand, farmers could get by without a formal job structure. But machines are less tolerant than farmworkers have been of casual work arrangements, he said; machines require skilled workers who are expensive and difficult to replace. Yet the erratic nature of much agricultural employment, with people hired for only a portion of the year and then let go, was discouraging skill development.

Throughout the study, the University researchers said, a major problem was the fact that job titles in agricultural industry—both on and off the farm—were "not very definitive in terms of functions and activities performed." They called this a critical deficiency in efforts to develop training programs. "If the future employee is to receive training which will meet the expectations of the employer, it is necessary to know what the job entails—not just for one employer, but for all," the researchers said. "This lack of specificity also contributes to another deficiency—lack of a defined career progression." To advance, workers were moving off the farm rather than up a skill ladder in agriculture.

If this situation is to change, agriculture and not education must take the initiative, the University's report said.

These problems also were explored in depth in research for the Manpower Administration on the technological, manpower, and policy implications of mechanization in fruit and vegetable harvests. In these studies, which were conducted by Michigan State University, Becket described his concepts of a personnel classification structure for agriculture. He placed the casual laborer at the foot of a career ladder, and he posited five other employment levels and gave minimum training requirements for jobs on each level. In Becket's words, it was "an attempt to create order out of chaos."

His theories of what might be done were accompanied by a warning. He said that the perspectives of farmers and farmworkers must serve as the foundation for the classification and structuring of farm manpower if such efforts are to have any chance of success in the real world.

Jack Fukumoto, owner of a farm where the Rural Economics Institute is doing its job ladder demonstration, subscribes wholeheartedly to this point of view. When the Institute's researchers first approached him about using his farm for their project, Fukumoto was suspicious of their intentions. He says that he feared an attempt to march in with "idealistic and readymade solutions" to his manpower needs. Farming has been Fukumoto's livelihood since 1954, and he has a down-to-earth approach to what it takes for a successful enterprise. At the same time, this University of California graduate with a major in farm management knows full well the competitive edge that science can help him build into his farming practices.

Once he found that the Institute was more interested in technical data-gathering than in advice-giving, and that any advice offered would be based on the data, Fukumoto signed on for the experiment. After about a year and a half in which researchers have studied the season-to-season changes in his operation, Fukumoto says: "The Institute is really going

Patricia Marshall is assistant editor of MANPOWER.

at this in a nitty gritty way. It is not a textbook exercise. The staff began with an analysis based on facts that were told to them and that they observed on my farm. I certainly hope to come out of this with more practical methods than I now have for developing qualified personnel."

Fukumoto has 1,500 acres planted in tomatoes, feed grains, and sugar beets. Of the six farms involved in the Institute study, two others also raise field and row crops while three make most of their income from orchards. On the California scale, they are medium-sized farms. They are owner-operated rather than massive corporate enterprises (about 5 percent of the farms in California have 20,000 acres or more) but are quite a bit larger than those on which an owner has to work for other farmers or do off-farm work in order to make a living.

To start its study, the Institute did job analysis on four farms. This involves systematic identification of what every worker does, how he does it, the equipment he uses, the product of his work, and traits such as physical capabilities and the amount of training required to perform various tasks. In this process the Institute used job analysis methods developed by the U.S. Employment Service; for technical assistance it turned to the Occupational Analysis Field Center in Los Angeles, a unit of the California Department of Human Resources Development. Nearly 2,000 tasks were identified in the researchers' on-farm observations and their interviews with workers.

Fukumoto's response to this massive accumulation of data was: "Is that what we actually go through?" Like other farmers, he is accustomed to thinking of manpower in terms of seasonal functions and the number of people he must hire to take him through the year. He constantly reevaluates what is going to work best for him in terms of his current needs, Fukumoto says, but in doing so he relies largely on general ideas of what he wants. He also makes many spur of the moment decisions, which he says are traditional among farmers.

When asked about manpower requirements for his 1,500 acres, Fukumoto says he has two year-round workers who rotate from fields to machine shop as needed. In March he begins building a temporary staff when he hires five tractor

(facing page)
Ray Penunuri repairs a tomato harvester on Jack Fukumoto's farm. A skilled maintenance mechanic, Penunuri, who works full time on the farm, also does some fieldwork.

Roy Johnson (left), and Manual Garza are regular workers on Fukumoto's farm. Both alternate between operation, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery and fieldwork.

Researcher Dave Rooney (right) learns about the tasks Ray Penunuri performs every day in his work on Fukumoto's farm.

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A seasonal worker prunes fruit trees for Heringer Enterprises, a California orchard farm that is participating in the farm job ladder demonstration project. Orchards traditionally are high labor intensity farms, but in recent years there has been tremendous displacement of labor by machines in certain crops. "In reality, this doesn't always help unit cost much," farm owner Fred Heringer says. "Some of us moved too fast, and we've had problems finding enough skilled people to run the machinery."

The job ladder demonstration project is the topic of conversation as Fred Heringer (foreground) gets together with a group of his field hands and cook Ramona Duron in the kitchen of his California ranch. In the job ladder demonstration, some of the field workers will be trained to make machinery repairs, thus opening the way to greater responsibilities and more pay.

drivers to work until July on ground preparation, planting, and cultivating. From April to August, he gradually adds nine irrigators for a few months of work. From April to mid-July, he hires 20 people to work first on hoeing crews and then as sorters on mechanical tomato harvesters. Fifty additional sorters, six forklift operators, four tractor drivers, and four harvester operators are hired to work from August to mid-October. Then Fukumoto's work force shrinks to its winter size.

He finds that the system leaves much to be desired because it does not assure him of a skilled worker supply at critical periods. Six years ago he began machine harvesting tomatoes, his major crop, and now has four harvesters which cost $28,000 apiece. The purchase increased the tomato acreage that it is economical for him to farm and greatly altered his manpower situation. Previously, he hired 200 people to harvest 300 acres in tomatoes. With four machines and 1,000 acres in tomatoes, he now needs only about 70 low-skilled workers in harvest season but must have more equipment operators and sometimes has trouble getting them.

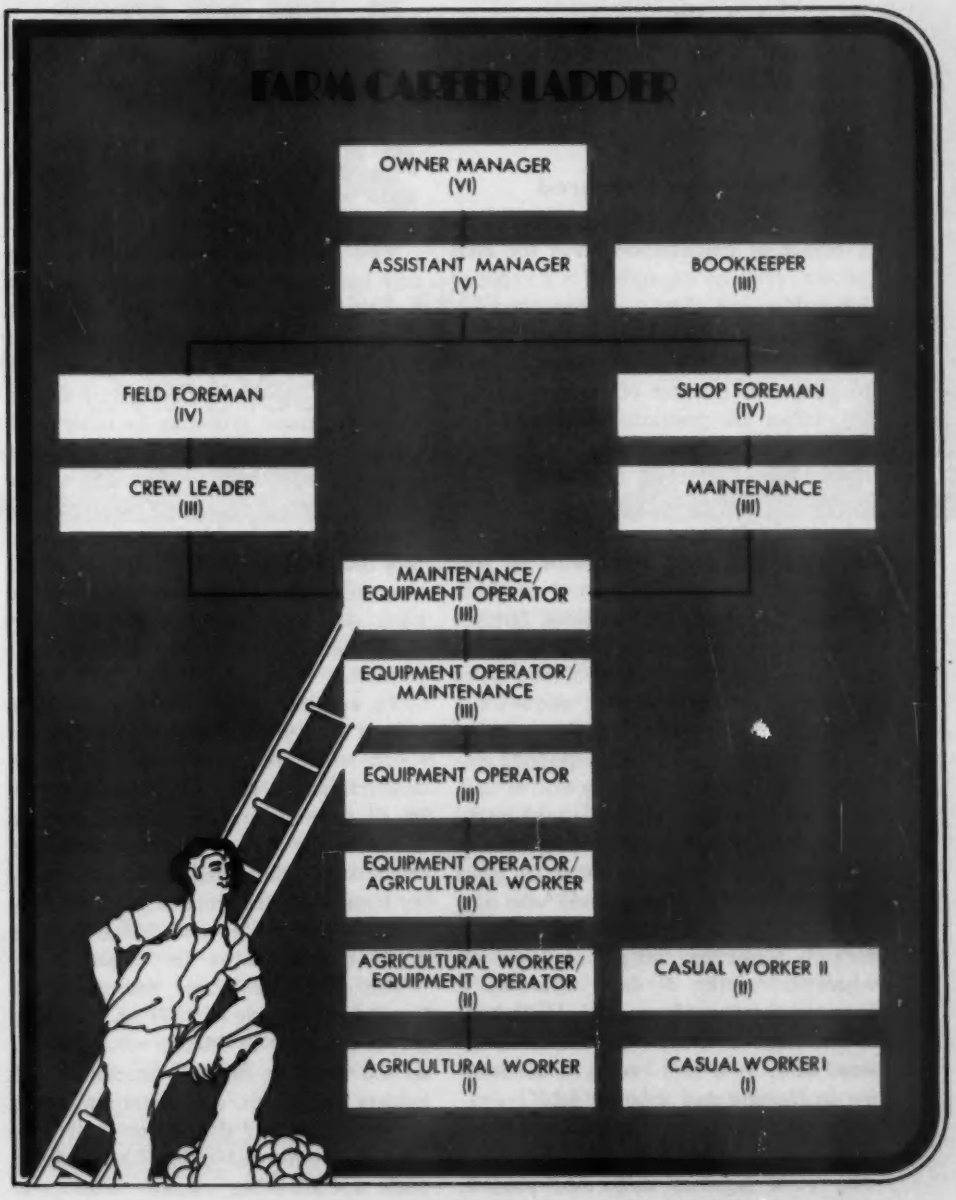
Training men for these jobs can be costly if the men fail to return the following year. It takes about a week, for example, before a worker learns to run a harvester without being a hazard to other workers, the machine, and the crop. Nowadays, Fukumoto also needs more mechanics who can care for his new equipment and replace and fabricate parts. In the past, he has had to make many of the machinery repairs himself.

As a result of the farm job ladder demonstration, Fukumoto Farms will be trying some new job practices this farm season. The Institute's manpower analysis indicates that four year-round positions are warranted. Further, the peaks and valleys of employment for other workers can be leveled off considerably. The five tractor drivers who work through the spring and summer—and who are at a higher skill level than is required for tractor driving in the fall—can move to harvester operation where their skills are needed. The 4 months of employment for the nine irrigators can be extended to 7 months by moving them into tractor driving for the harvest.

Doing job studies for the demonstration project was no easy assignment, according to Institute staff member Rodolfo Delgado. The seasonal nature of farmwork and the lack of clear job definitions—when help is short, a man might be a mechanic one day and an irrigator the next—tend to make life difficult for researchers. Also, farmers often have their own ways of doing things. One will prune trees to improve yields, while his neighbor prunes in an entirely different fashion in order to bring fruit to outside branches for harvesting by machine.

Skill levels needed for the same general work functions can vary by type of farm. Discing an open field prior to planting grain does not take precision driving, Delgado says, because it doesn't matter much whether the farmworker follows a straight line. But discing in orchards must be done with great skill to avoid damaging tree roots and trunks. Such job characteristics make it essential that Institute researchers have a good working knowledge of farming, Delgado says, but if they come up against some unfamiliar practices, they must "be willing to ask a lot of dumb questions."

After the Institute identified all tasks



being performed on the farms in its study, each task was assigned to one of six levels of complexity (these form rungs on a job ladder, and they correspond roughly to the levels Becket recommended). In addition, the tasks were grouped under one of the major farm functions: Ground preparation, planting, cultural practices, harvest, maintenance, and management. Then the researchers developed job positions—an example is "Level II equipment operator/agricultural worker, field and row crops"—which took all these factors into account.

"This was a difficult and sometimes painful process," project director Donald Bennett admits. "Grouping so many tasks and assigning them their rightful place is tedious. It's easy to get bogged down in the paperwork unless one keeps his sights fixed on the objectives."

Individual Plans Prepared

Next, the Institute staff is drawing up a personnel organization chart for each farmer. (For an example of a completed job ladder, see chart.) A man-hour per acre index, developed largely by University of California agriculturalists, is used to gauge the number of persons needed in various job positions. The goal is a manpower plan which meets a farmer's requirements, extends farmworker employment, and opens pathways to better jobs on the farm.

"We're not doing away with all seasonal employment. It's absurd to think we can," Bennett says. "Besides, farmers have a local labor force they can turn to during peak periods. The problems we're concerned with are farmers' needs for a core of skilled workers and the needs of regular farmworkers for less sporadic employment. However, we may not be able to set up all skilled jobs on a year-round basis in this demonstration project. But we'll have made great strides if, by good planning, we can take someone who now works for 10 hours a day, 7 days a week, for only 6 months, and put him in a job where he works 6 days a week, 8 hours a day for 10 months. He'll have to scrounge for work only 2 months instead of 6. And he'll have a ladder leading to training and a better job."

In addition, the Institute's efforts should help farmers keep the skilled men who work in their shops. At present, farmers have a hard time keeping these men, Bennett says, because the hours are long and often they must work 7 days a week. As a result, many shopworkers stay only a couple of months. Bennett thinks that setting an 8-hour day for this work, scheduling days off, and employing the men during some seasons as skilled equipment operators—a less demanding job—will substantially increase worker satisfaction and skills.

As for the farmer's costs, Bennett thinks these are not likely to rise much when all factors are taken into account. He cites hidden costs farmers already bear, such as poor help, high labor turnover, damaged equipment, and time spent on work someone else should be doing. Fukumoto, for example, has had no supervisory personnel other than an irrigation crew leader. As a result, he has been worknig long hours for 7 days a week with too little time for management considerations.

This problem is a common one, Bennett points out. He quotes an article in a recent issue of the farm magazine, "Top Op," which said: "It's easy . . . to see that management problems in agriculture are rapidly becoming very similar to management problems in other businesses. But farmers are 20 years behind in coping with these problems." Farmers and ranchers of large and medium-sized operations are business executives and they must start acting that way, the magazine said. One recommendation was to push decisionmaking, accompanied by accountability, down the line as far as possible.

To help farmers in the demonstration project start moving in this direction, Institute researchers have prepared detailed descriptions for what they believe should be all the regular, nonseasonal jobs on their new job ladders and have suggested minimum worker qualifications. Blanks for hours and other conditions of employment, salary range, and fringe benefits are to be filled in by the farmer.

The farm job ladder project, which began in the spring of 1971, is scheduled for completion in March of next year as the Institute finishes structuring job ladders for all six demonstration farms. The total cost of the project will have been less than $350,000. The findings, while not providing massive solutions to manpower problems in agriculture, do indicate some alternative manpower practices. that farmers might employ to strengthen their basic work force.

An important question remains: How are the findings in this project, whose purposes are limited to research and demonstration, to be put to broader use?

In Washington, D.C., officials of the U.S. Departments of Labor and Agriculture have met to explore possibilities for utilization, but as yet no conclusions have been reached.

In California, farm leaders know about the project. From the start, the Institute enlisted their technical expertise and support through an active advisory committee. Among groups represented are the California Farm Bureau Federation, the California Council of Growers, the California Young Farmers Association, and the Tulare County Farmers Association.

Other committee members are James Becket, now professional development coordinator for the State's vocational education department; John Mamer of the University of California's agriculture experiment station; Varden Fuller, professor of agricultural economics at the University; and farmers participating in the demonstration. Bennett hopes the interest of committee members will help to find ways and means to put what has been learned to good use in this State and elsewhere.

Farmers Getting Message

Meanwhile, down on the farm, owners like Jack Fukumoto are beginning to recognize that they have never given the basic problems of labor management the same degree of attention they have given to fertilizers, seeds, pruning practices, capital, and other aspects of farming. But the time is past when they can afford not to do so. Skilled labor is becoming a critical factor in agriculture. So is the amount of time farm owners like Fukumoto devote to broad management concerns, for they must struggle to survive in the same markets as giant, heavily mechanized, and heavily financed producers.

Get out of the machine shop. Train skilled workers. Offer workers a future in farming. That is the handwriting on the wall, and farmers like Fukumoto are beginning to get the message. □

A MOVING PICTURE OF THE MIDDLE YEARS

Study Traces Labor Market Experiences of Group of Men Over 5-Year Span

by Timothy Larkin

There have been many attempts to characterize our times. The Age of the Atom. The Age of the Astronaut. The Age of Aquarius.

A good case could be made for dropping these more glamorous designations in favor of the "Era of Enumeration." Never before have we been so rich with data providing measures on our progress from cradle to grave. Somewhere waiting for the curious are exact statistics on the American Football League's sixth leading rusher during 1969, the ratio of hogs to people in Iowa, the number of miles tracked by Soyuz IV, and the month when the population "bomb" will explode. There seems to be statistical answers to every question. Indeed, some believe there are statistical answers for which there are no known questions.

Despite this wealth of numbers, indices, measures, and totals, most statistics are like photographs freezing a single moment. Few resemble moving pictures by providing meaningful data about a phenomenon over a period of time.

An exception can be found in the statistics provided in Volume III of *The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of the Labor Market Experiences of Men.*[1] This is the third progress report on a 5-year study—being carried forward by Ohio State University under contract with the Manpower Administration—on the labor market experiences of a national sample of 5,000 middle-aged men. The latest report is based on data collected by mail questionnaire in 1968 and personal reinterviews in mid-1969 as well as on information gathered in the original 1966 interviews, when the men were 45 to 59 years of age.

Take this group of men, record their personal characteristics, current work experience, wage and salary rates, and then monitor 3 years of their experience in the marketplace. What happens to them?

There is in the experience of these middle-aged men the standard catalog of fortune's slings, arrows, and benefices. With advancing age the death rate increases; children grow up and move away; health erodes; assets grow; and incomes begin to decline.

All this is to be expected, but less expected are other findings.

Timothy Larkin is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

[1] *The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of the Labor Market Experience of Men, Volume III* is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, for $2. (Stock No. 2900-00167.)

MIDDLE YEARS *continued*

For example, despite having reached middle age, a considerable number of the respondents reported recent involvement in vocational training. In 1966, half the men in the survey sample reported that over their lifetime they had received some vocational training beyond that taken in the regular school system. Within the next 3 years, 17 percent of the whites and 9 percent of the blacks had taken additional training.

The study also unearthed what it calls "fascinating interactions among age, health condition, and color." For example, much of the relationship between age and labor force participation results not from age alone but from the greater incidence of health problems among the older men in the sample.

Overall, the labor force participation rate in 1969 for white men between 48 and 52 years of age was more than 12 percentage points higher than the rate for men between 58 and 62. But among men who reported no health problems in either 1966 or 1969, this difference was less than 3 percentage points. The same relationship held true for the total sample. There was a significant decline in labor force participation from 1966 to 1969 for older compared with younger men, but this decline became far less marked when only those who enjoyed continuously good health during the period were compared.

There is a more surprising finding when race as well as health is considered. Much of the difference between white and black rates disappeared when the comparison was confined to blacks and whites who were in good health during the 3-year period. In fact, "The 1969 labor force participation rate of such blacks exceeds that of their white counterparts," the study states. However, good health did not enable blacks to overcome their disadvantage in rates of pay; whites whose health limited the kind or amount of work they could do received from 9 to 34 percent more per hour than did blacks in the same occupations whose health did *not* limit their activities.

One of the most widely accepted items of conventional belief is that the "over the hill" worker (over the hill here defined as passing the cruel and arbitrary year of 40 when life purportedly begins and employability declines) should stay put and count his blessings, even if there are few of them to count. But the study shows considerable job changing among 45- to 59-year-old workers (see chart 1), with above average rates of voluntary

movement "from jobs that are less attractive from the standpoint of wages, fringe benefits, and stability. . . ."

Thus, these middle-aged men found that the labor market operated in a way that improved both the allocation of labor and their own well-being and satisfaction. Far from clinging to an unrewarding and unsatisfactory job, the over-40 workers, black and white alike, who voluntarily changed employers during the 3 years gained a greater increase in average hourly earnings than those who remained with the same employer. While older blacks and whites changed jobs both voluntarily and involuntarily at about the same rate, the relative economic gain for blacks was better.

Among both black and white workers, those who were the oldest, had been on the job the longest, and were considered

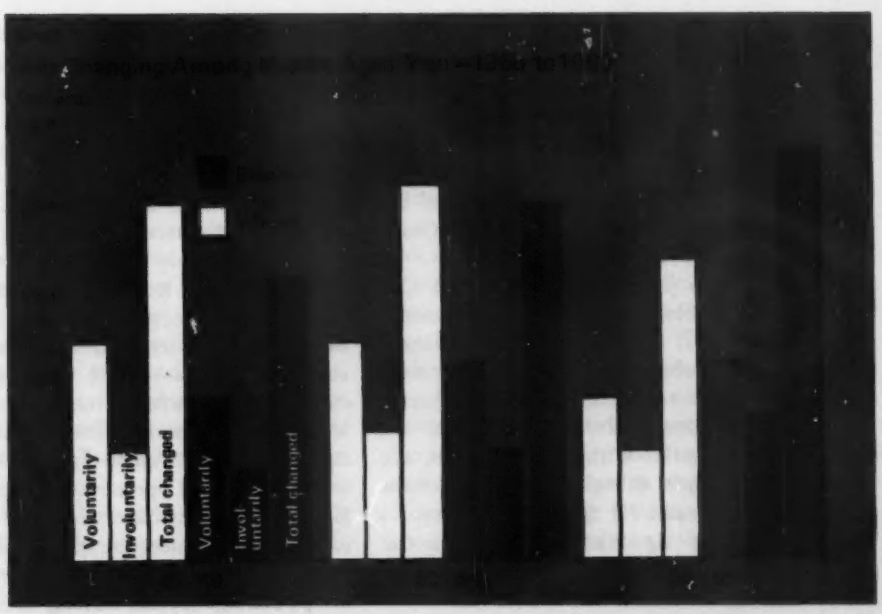


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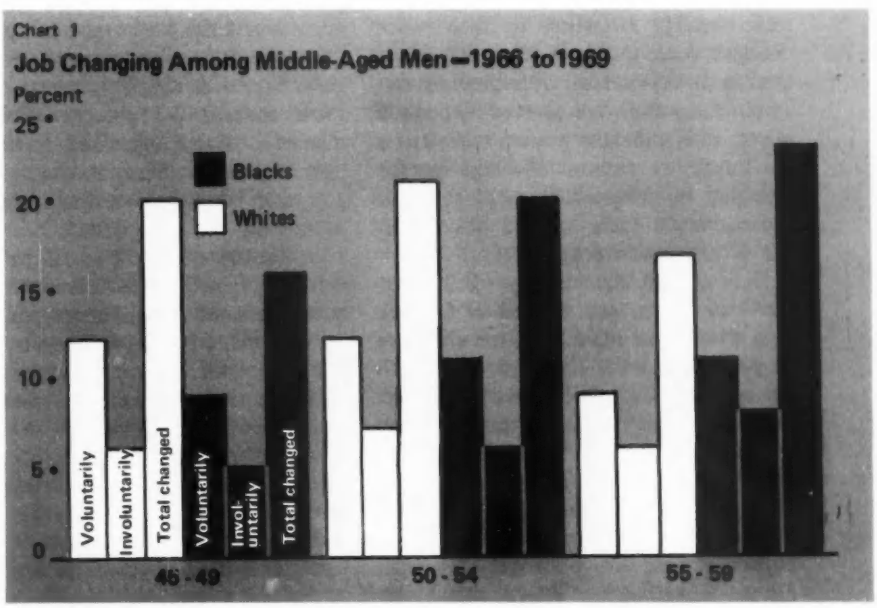
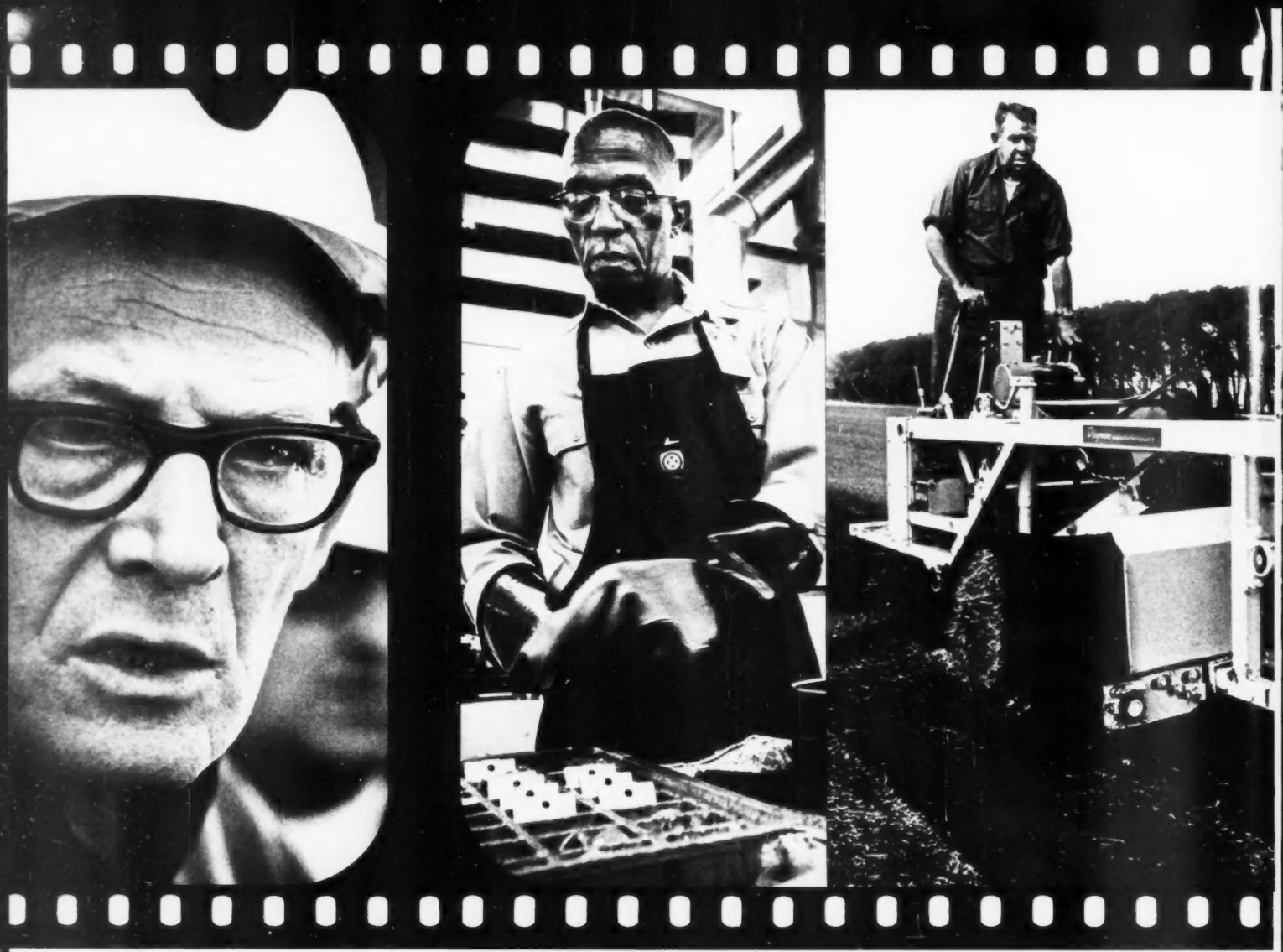
Chart 1

Job Changing Among Middle-Aged Men—1966 to 1969





MIDDLE YEARS *continued*

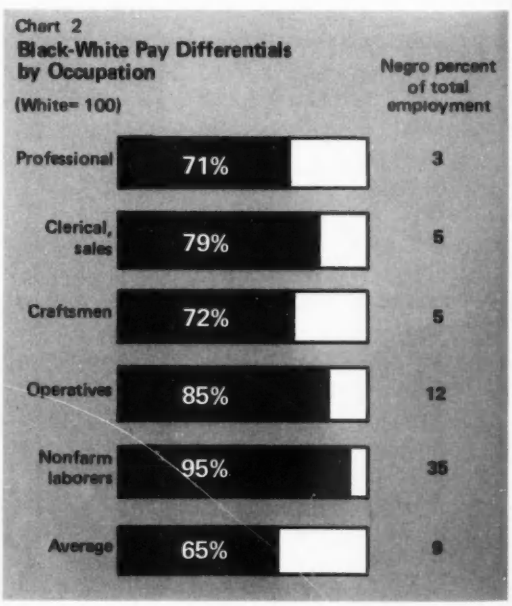
most strongly attached to their work changed jobs the least. On the whole these men experienced little previous unemployment and were covered by pension plans. It is difficult, however, to assess the impact of pension coverage on job changing by long-tenure employees because so few of them changed jobs regardless of pension coverage.

Data on job changing by tenure suggest that blacks get "locked in" sooner than whites. Among blacks, job changing dropped substantially after 5 years with the same employer. For whites the dropoff in job changing behavior came at the 10-year mark. With this exception, the rates on job changing by tenure were about the same for blacks and whites.

Another significant finding was the impact of collective bargaining coverage on the status of the worker. In 1969, about two-fifths of the middle-aged male wage and salary earners were covered by collective bargaining agreements. And, of those covered, 93 percent were union members. These organized workers did better by almost every measure—tenure, pay, and pension coverage, for example —than did the unorganized.

While the study shows all blue-collar workers gained from unionization, the advantages of organization for blacks were particularly impressive. Among nonunion operatives—which include such occupations as truckdrivers, assemblers, textile weavers, and welders—white men earned 27 percent more than blacks. But among unionized operatives, the pay differential between white and black dropped to 11 percent. Also, the black-white differential in pension coverage shrank from 22 percentage points among those not

Chart 2
Black-White Pay Differentials by Occupation
(White= 100)



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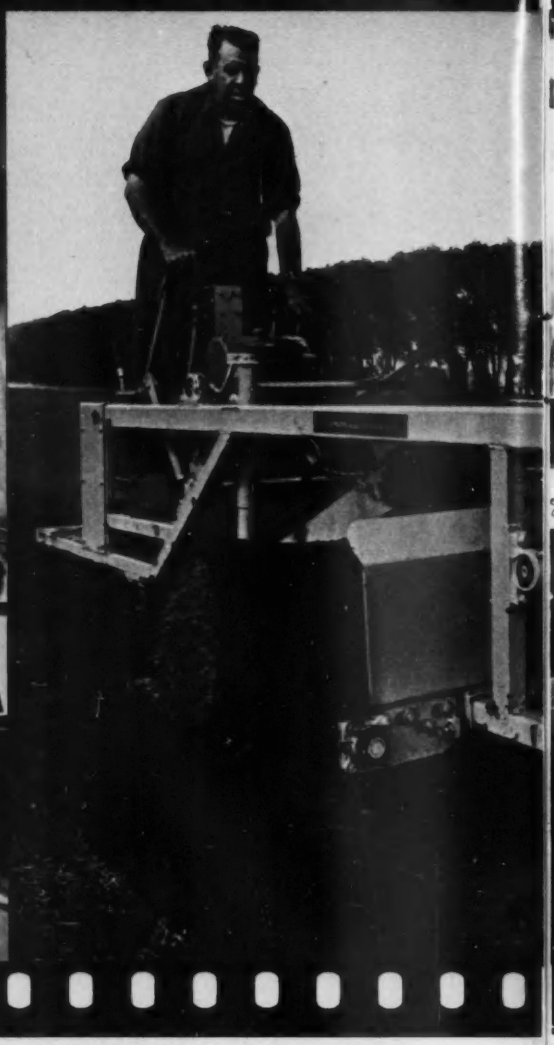

MIDDLE YEARS *continued*

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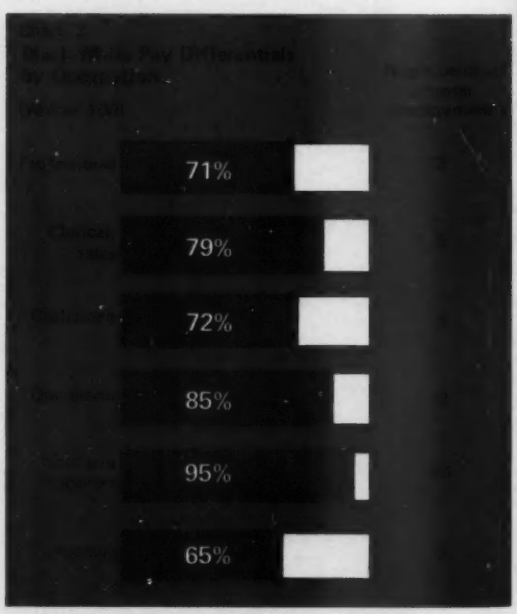


covered by collective bargaining to 6 percentage points among those covered.

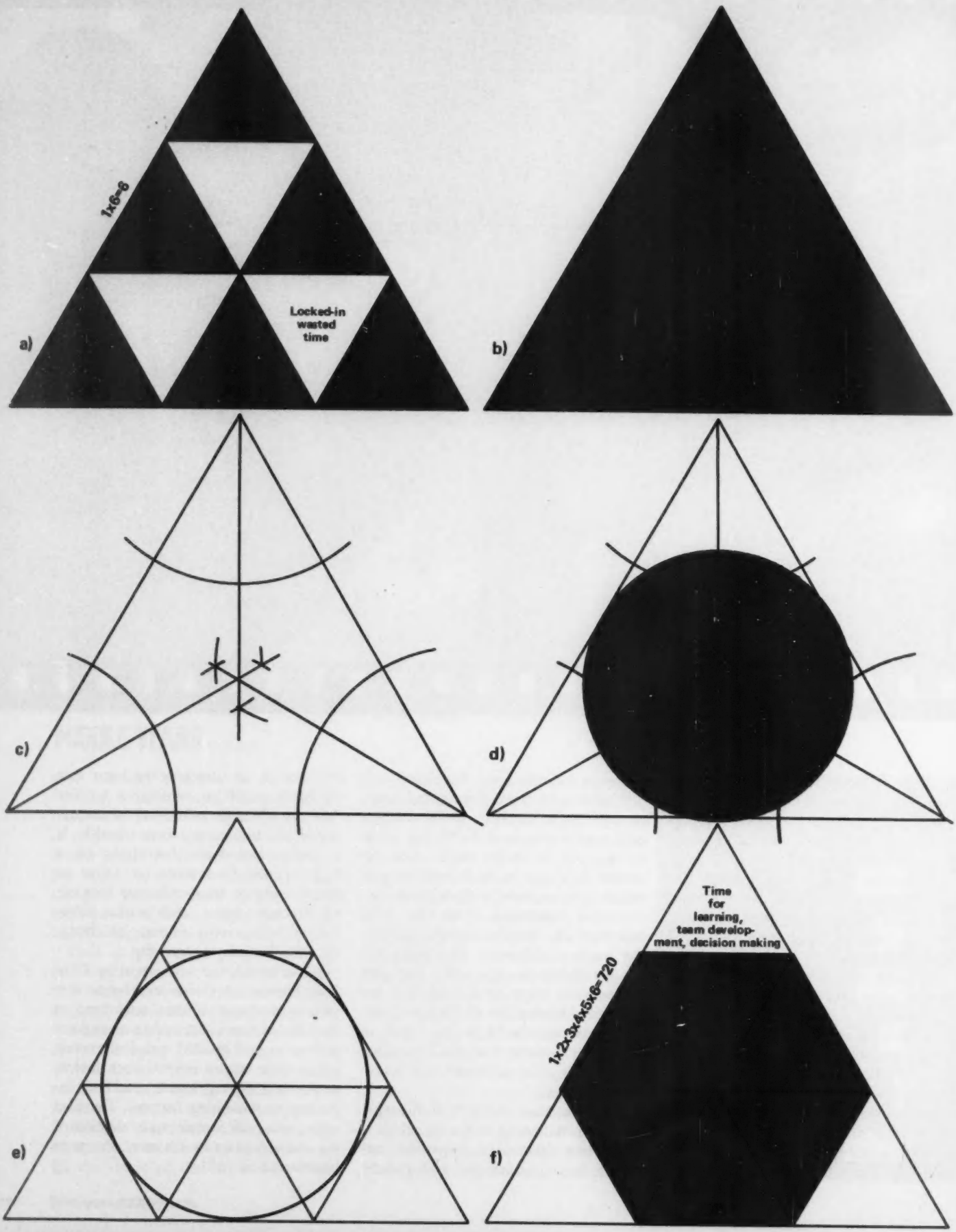
If unionization is one major route to higher pay for men over 45, job training is another. For men with exactly 12 years of education, some training beyond this gave whites an advantage of 14 percent in average hourly wages over those with no extra training. Here too blacks benefited proportionately more than whites; blacks with the extra training earned 32 percent more than those without it.

Other factors that affected hourly earnings were educational attainment, job tenure, health, and knowledge of the labor market. Whites benefited more than blacks from additional education, long tenure on the job, and good health. But blacks with superior labor market information earned about 10 percent more than their less informed peers, while the advantage for whites was 3 percent.

What about earnings themselves? Average earnings in 1969 for all the middle-aged respondents were $4.25 for white workers and $2.78 for blacks. This 35 percent deficiency in black workers' pay reflects in large measure the different occupational distribution of the two races (see chart 2). However, community size also makes a difference. The bigger the city the higher the pay scale, and here too there is a larger positive effect on the earnings of blacks. For all black workers, the rate of pay was 68 percent higher in the largest compared with the smallest communities. The difference for whites was 29 percent.

One of the main strengths of this study is the light thrown upon the variations in black-white differentials. Given the burden of discrimination past and present, it is not at all surprising to learn that the black payoff in earnings is smaller than the white for additional education, longer job tenure, and better health. It is surprising to learn that blacks get a bigger payoff than whites in terms of hourly earnings from collective bargaining coverage, better labor market information, occupational training, job changing, and living in a larger city.

When issued, the next report by Ohio State University's Center for Human Resources Research of data uncovered in the 1971 survey will provide a more comprehensive and detailed statistical moving picture that will encompass such factors as the respondents' health condition, including work-limiting factors. The next report also will contain an evaluation of the entire 5 years by the men who were interviewed in 1971. □


1x6=6
Locked-in wasted time
a)
b)
c)
d)
Time for learning, team development, decision making
1x2x3x4x5x6=720
e)
f)

Job Redesign: Some Case Histories

Job redesign holds promise as a way to deal with discontents of American workers which result in high absenteeism and turnover, low productivity, and occasional in-plant sabotage. This is a central finding of Work in America, *the report of a special task force named by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. The purpose of the study was to examine the health of the Nation's working life and suggest ways that it might be improved.*

In a report on the study, the New York Times *noted that job redesign is not necessarily an idea whose time has come. The newspaper quoted a U.S. Chamber of Commerce spokesman who said that industrialists probably would hope their competitors got involved in job redesign because "it costs too much money."*

Nevertheless, a number of firms are forging ahead in this direction. Most of the effort, however, is confined to small work groups and seldom affects an entire factory, the HEW task force says. A major exception is the General Foods Corporation, which built one of its plants around new job design concepts. The following excerpts from Work in America *describe the experiences at this plant and in other business firms where an estimated 3,000 workers are involved in extensive redesign efforts.*

The . . . General Foods manufacturing plant . . . was designed to incorporate features that would provide a high quality of working life, enlist unusual human involvement, and achieve high productivity. Management built this plant because the employees in an existing plant manifested many severe symptoms of alientation. Because of their indifference and inattention, the continuous process type of technology used in the plant was susceptible to frequent shutdowns, to product waste, and to costly recycling. There were serious acts of sabotage and violence. Employees worked effectively for only a few hours a day and strongly resisted changes that would have resulted in a fuller utilization of manpower.

Management enlisted the advice and cooperation of workers and consultants from business schools, and together they designed a plant along the following lines:

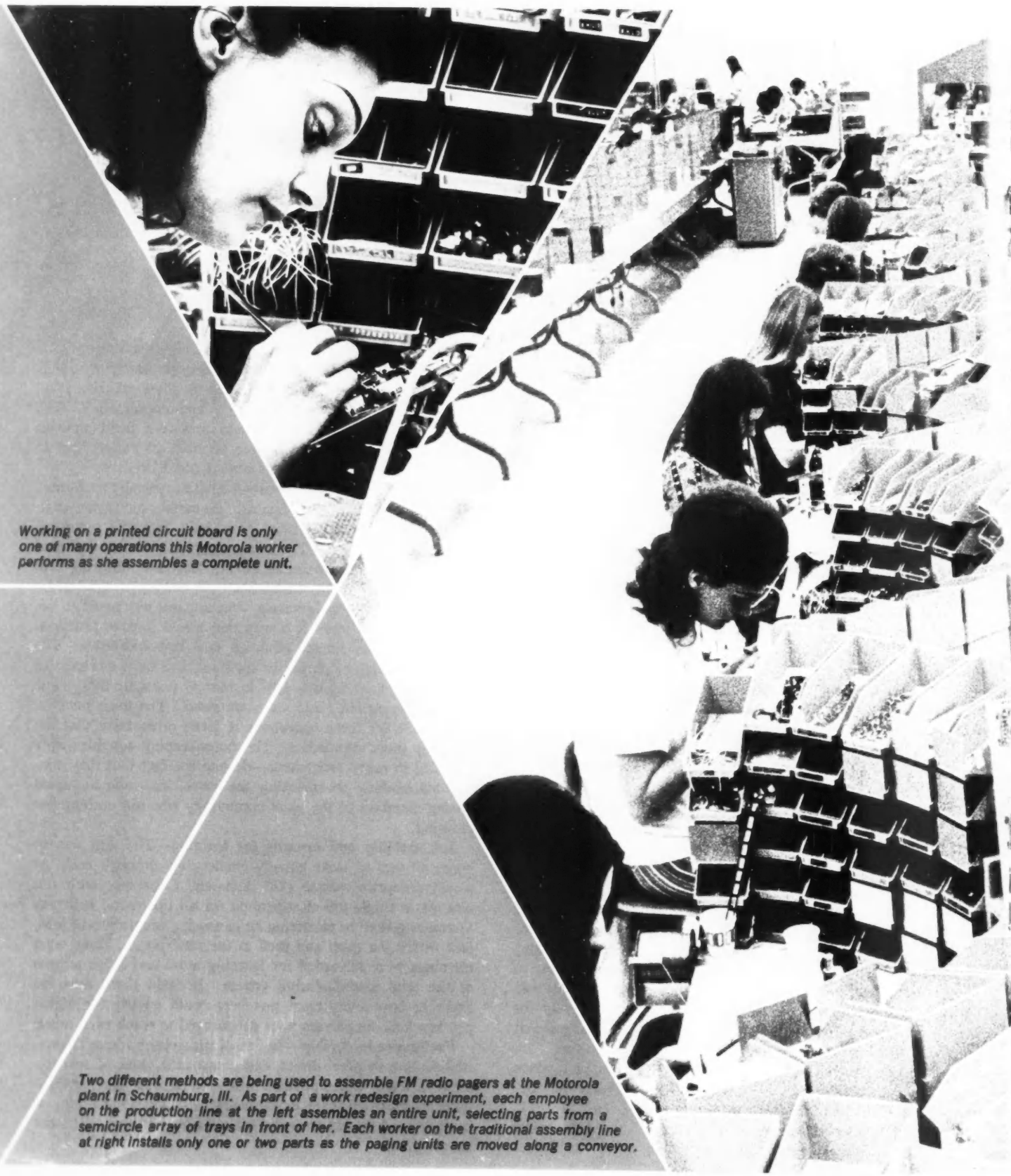
Autonomous work groups—Self-management work teams were formed and given collective responsibility for larger segments of the production process. The teams are composed of from eight to 12 members—large enough to cover a full set of tasks, and small enough to allow effective face-to-face meetings for decisionmaking and coordination. The teams decide who will do what tasks, and most members learn to do each other's jobs, both for the sake of variety and to be able to cover for a sick or absent coworker.

Integrated support functions—Activities typically performed by maintenance, quality control, custodial, industrial engineering, and personnel units were built into the operating team's responsibilities. The teams accepted both first and final responsibility for performing quality tests and ensuring that they maintained quality standards.

Challenging job assignments—An attempt was made to design every set of tasks in a way that would include functions requiring higher human abilities and responsibilities. The basic technology employed in the plant had been designed to eliminate dull or routine jobs insofar as possible. Still, some nonchallenging but basic tasks remained. The team member responsible for these operations is given other tasks that are mentally more demanding. The housekeeping activities were included in every assignment—despite the fact that they contributed nothing to enriching the work—in order to avoid having members of the plant community who did nothing but cleaning.

Job mobility and rewards for learning—The aim was to make all sets of tasks equally challenging although each set would comprise unique skill demands. Consistent with this aim was a single job classification for all opertaors, with pay increases geared to mastering an increasing proportion of jobs, first within the team and then in the total plant. Thus, team members were rewarded for learning more and more aspects of the total manufacturing system. Because there were no limits to how many team members could qualify for higher pay brackets, employees were encouraged to teach each other.

Facilitative leadership—In lieu of supervisors whose responsibilities are to plan, direct, and control the work of subordinates, a team leader position was created with the responsibility to facilitate team development and decisionmaking. It is envisioned that in time the team leader position might not be required.



Working on a printed circuit board is only one of many operations this Motorola worker performs as she assembles a complete unit.

Two different methods are being used to assemble FM radio pagers at the Motorola plant in Schaumburg, Ill. As part of a work redesign experiment, each employee on the production line at the left assembles an entire unit, selecting parts from a semicircle array of trays in front of her. Each worker on the traditional assembly line at right installs only one or two parts as the paging units are moved along a conveyor.

Printed circuit boards back up a bit as a worker on the traditional assembly line at Motorola inserts a single component in a pager.

Managerial decision information for operators—The design of the new plant called for providing operators with economic information and managerial decision rules. This enables production decisions ordinarily made at the second level of supervision to be made at the operator level.

Self-government for the plant community—Management refrained from specifying in advance any plant rules; rather, it was committed to let the rules evolve from collective experience.

Congruent physical and social context—Differential status symbols that characterize traditional work organizations were minimized in the new plant—for example, by a parking lot open to all regardless of position, single office-plant entrance, and common decor throughout office, cafeteria, and locker room. The technology and architecture were designed to facilitate rather than discourage the congregating of team members during working hours. The assumption was that these ad hoc meetings often would be enjoyable human exchanges as well as opportunities to coordinate work and to learn about each other's job.

Using standard principles, industrial engineers had indicated that 110 workers would be needed to man the plant. But when the team concept (rather than individual assignments) was applied, and when support activities were integrated into team responsibilities, the result was a manning level of less than 70 workers. While this 40 percent smaller work force is impressive, it is not the major economic benefit, because labor costs per unit are not a large percentage of the cost of goods sold in this particular business. The major economic benefit has come from such factors as improved yields, minimized waste, and avoidance of shutdowns. Significantly, these are productivity items that are related to technology but are especially sensitive to the work attitudes of operators. . . .

Following are some other successful examples of the redesign of both blue- and white-collar jobs:

- At the Banker's Trust Company, many typists had repetitious jobs that entailed recording stock transfer data. Production was low, quality was poor, attitudes slack; absenteeism and turnover were high. The workers decided to try to redesign their own work tasks. Among other changes, they eliminated the work of a checker, and of a special group that made corrections by assuming these responsibilities themselves. This change permits a $360,000 annual savings, and the social problems have been largely eliminated. Similar results have been reported at Traveler's Insurance with keypunch operators.
- On a Corning Glass assembly line, workers used to assemble portions of laboratory hot plates. Now each worker assembles an entire plate. Employees put their initials on each final product to allow identification with the work and to reference customer complaints. They also are given the opportunity to schedule their work as a group, and to

Workers at the Corning Glass plant in Medfield, Mass., used to assemble portions of laboratory hot plates; now each worker assembles an entire plate. After completing the unit, the worker tests it, puts her signature—called a "brag tag"—on the product, and sends it directly to the shipping department.

design work flow improvements. Quality checks previously made by a separate group are conducted by the workers themselves. In 6 months following the change, rejects dropped from 23 percent to 1 percent, and absenteeism from 8 percent to 1 percent. During this same time, productivity increased. Also, the reputation of this division as an undesirable place to work was reversed. Other job change projects have been conducted at Corning with more complex instruments.

• Until 1967, Texas Instruments contracted for its cleaning and janitorial services. But the firm's engineers evaluated the plant as only "65 percent clean." Apparently, the contractor's ability to do the job well was aggravated by a quarterly turnover rate of 100 percent.

Preceded by careful planning and training, the following actions were taken in a test involving 120 maintenance personnel:

Cleaning service teams of 19 people were organized and given a voice in the planning, problem solving, and goal setting for their own jobs. They were thoroughly trained in the job requirements and techniques, and were provided with adequate equipment to do the job. They were held accountable for the overall job. The means of getting the job done were left to them. It was also the teams' responsibility to act independently to devise their own strategies, plans, and schedules to meet the objective. They were taught how to measure their own performance and were given the freedom to do so, both as individuals and as teams.

These were the outcomes:

The cleanliness level rating improved from 65 percent to 85 percent. Personnel required for cleaning dropped from 120 to 71. Quarterly turnover dropped from 100 percent to 9.8 percent. From the fourth quarter of 1967 until the fourth quarter of 1969, costs savings for the entire site averaged $103,000 per annum.

• Motorola Inc. has restructured an assembly operation so that each employee involved in the experiment, instead of working on one or two components of the total product, now puts together the entire combination of 80 different components. Each employee is personally responsible for the quality of his receivers. His name appears on each of his units, and he must personally repair any unit that does not meet testing requirements. Early results from the experiment indicate that the technique of individual assembly requires 25 percent more workers, as well as a more detailed training program. However, these greater costs are just about offset by higher productivity, by the need for less inspection, by lower repair costs, by improved quality, and by reduced employee turnover and absentee rates.

• Norway's Norsk Hydro fertilizer company was experiencing steadily tougher competition and decreasing profits. Management also considered that their relationship with labor was unsatisfactory. In response to this situation, the company selected a fertilizer processing plant with about 50 employees for a job redesign effort. The idea behind the experiment was that every worker should be able to get help from others when he needed it. To achieve this, the following organizational changes were made:

Shifts were organized into flexible subgroups, each responsible for production in an assigned work area. Individual workers were not given specific jobs.

The organization was built up without supervisors.

Each worker was given the opportunity to learn all the tasks within his subgroup through job rotation and mutual aid. It was left to the worker to decide how quickly and how much he wanted to increase his competence, thus leaving little chance for too much or too little variation in a job.

A bonus system was installed that paid the workers according to factors they themselves could influence, such as quantity produced, cost, loss of materials, and working hours. Since the bonus included all workers in the 50-man plant, it was aimed at stimulating cooperation. Basic wages were paid according to the number of jobs in the plant that a worker was able to do rather than the actual work he did. . . .

Production Costs Reduced

The percentage of workers expressing satisfaction (on old jobs compared with new) increased from 58 to 100 on general satisfaction, from 45 to 85 on variety, from 33 to 96 on learning, from 42 to 96 on responsibility, and from 39 to 73 on security. The economic result was that production costs per ton steadily decreased by about 30 percent during the first 6 months of the project and absenteeism in the experimental factory was 4 percent against 7 percent for a "control" factory and 7.5 percent for the firm as a whole. Norsk Hydro has since begun to extend participative management throughout the company. . . .

Although (certain) . . . general principles . . . apply to all job restructuring situations, each workplace must experiment . . . (with) its own specific design.

This is not to say that no general principles whatsoever can be derived from the redesign that has occurred. To the contrary, these examples have in common the participation of workers in decisionmaking and, in many cases, profit sharing. A few comments are in order on both of these.

Participative management does not mean participation through representatives, for . . . (this practice) may foster alientation through the inevitable gap between expected and actual responsiveness of the representatives. Nor does this kind of participation mean placing workers or union representatives on the board of directors of a corporation. Where workers have so served (in Norway, for example), neither participation by the rank and file nor productivity has increased, and worker alientation has not decreased.

Participative management means . . . that workers are enabled to control the aspects of work intimately affecting their lives. It permits the worker to achieve and maintain a sense of personal worth and importance, to grow, to motivate himself, and to receive recognition and approval for what he does. It gives the worker a meaningful voice in decisions in one place where the effects of his voice can be immediately experienced. In a broader sense, it resolves a contradiction in our Nation—between democracy in society and authoritarianism in the workplace.

Not all of a company's decisions, of course, are turned over to the workers when they participate in management. Upper

level managers continue to run the company, handle major financial transactions, and coordinate all the functions. Although they are no longer involved in planning the details of every operation in the company, they serve as expert consultants to the teams of workers. Some managerial jobs, however, do tend to be eliminated such as some of the lower and middle management positions as well as foremen in authorityless . . . positions. But these jobs are frequently unsatisfying (foreman jobs go begging in the auto industry) and unproductive. . . .

Participation in profits is needed to avoid having workers feel that participative management is merely a refined Tayloristic technique for improving productivity at their expense. The redesign of work tasks through participation will increase productivity, but some experience has indicated that without profit sharing workers may feel that they have been manipulated, and productivity may slip back to former levels.

Profit sharing is also the most direct response to the problem of equitable wage increases for employees: The contribution of the worker can be tied directly to his salary increases. Profit sharing also responds to another problem—that of inflation generated by rising salaries not tied to productivity. . . . Profit sharing could be of some help in reducing these inflationary tendencies of our economy by tying wage increases in particular industries more closely to productivity increases.

Profit Sharing Good Motivator

When these increases are paid to the worker in the form of stock ownership (deferred profit sharing), they are of considerable economic and psychological benefit. But direct profit sharing—a contracted portion of profits above a decent wage —is a partciularly valuable motivator because it closes the income gap between employer and employee without taking from one to give to the other, and because it does away with a special privilege that separates workers from managers.

Either by design or default, a fragmented approach to motivation has evolved in American business. Executives have been rewarded through salary, profit-sensitive bonuses, and stock options; salaried personnel through salary, status, and fringe benefits (largely unrelated to performance); and hourly employees by wages. Corporate pyramids are thereby carefully stratified, with horizontal modes for motivating each stratum. This drives an additional artificial wedge between classes of workers, and adds to the hostility, alienation, lack of cohesion, and loss of identification with the firm. . . .

In 1971 the Profit Sharing Research Foundation studied a group of the largest department store chains in the United States. . . . (It) divided the chains into those with profit-sharing plans and those without, and compared them on both operating ratios and growth measures over a period of 18 years. On all significant measures, the profit-sharing group of companies outperformed the nonprofit-sharing group by substantial and widening percentages. . . .

The increased efficiency of companies with profit sharing does not appear to lead to unemployment. Characteristically, profit-sharing companies do about a 25 percent better job of enlarging their markets and creating jobs than do less efficient nonprofit-sharing companies.

Although the record of profit sharing is generally positive, it does not automatically insure greater productivity. (In addition to being) tied to participative management . . . other general guidelines seem to prevail that are necessary for long-term success:

- Profit sharing must be clearly in addition to adequate base pay and fringes. Where this is not the case, workers interpret it as a substitute for wage and fringe increases which —because it is more complicated in its mechanisms—is more subject to manipulation by the employer.
- Profit sharing must be tied to the productivity of the worker or his small group and not to the profitability of the entire firm. Profitability relates to increases in the net financial worth of a firm—a condition that is most often not affected by the efforts of an individual worker. Productivity is the physical output per worker—a condition that is often controllable by the worker. In some industries, it is difficult to measure individual worker productivity. For example, where the pace of a worker is controlled by the pace of the machine, his productivity is not under his control. However, management experts have been able to develop proxy measures that work quite well under these circumstances.
- Payments must be sensitive to small group productivity. Consider the worker employed by a 100,000-employee corporation who works on the shop floor with a team of 13 other workers. His share in the portion of profits allocated to the plan is about one-hundred-thousandth of the share (adjusted to his income). It is unlikely that this worker will connect his own efforts, ingenuity, ideas, and willingness to participate —or the efforts of his immediate group—to the amount of his share in the profits. (Obversely, if he and his group devoted themselves full time to sabotage, perhaps they could reduce their annual share in the profits by a few dollars each.) The implementation of this principle will require a redefinition of productivity to account for indirect costs such as turnover, absenteeism, and other costly symptoms of the withdrawal-from-work syndrome along with the development of sound techniques for measuring small-group productivity.
- Return must be immediate and based on productivity. Again, take an extreme case and imagine a worker whose efforts are rewarded by a share in profits paid annually. Even if his share in these profits is significantly affected by the productivity of his group, the reward may be too far in the future to affect his performance and that of his group. Ideally, the distribution of profits should follow closely the period of productivity.
- The plans must be contractual. Arrangements that can be arbitrarily rescinded are seen as paternalistic and, therefore, unsuited to the current and future labor force.

The argument can then be summed up: Both human goals (autonomy and interdependence) and economic goals (increased productivity) can be achieved through the sharing by workers in both the responsibilities of production and the profits earned through production. Most workers will willingly assume responsibility for a wider range of decisions (and thereby increase productivity and profits) if they are also allowed to share in the results. □

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE MANPOWER REPORT

Revitalized labor demand, a quickening pace of economic activity, and continued expansion of the civilian labor force—these are some of the recent manpower developments examined in the 1973 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT.

In transmitting the Report to Congress, President Nixon expressed gratification with the effectiveness of the Administration's effort to improve the employment situation of Vietnam-era veterans, and found it particularly encouraging that rapid expansion of the civilian labor force did not impede a reduction of overall unemployment rates in 1972.

The President also noted that a decade of experimentation with federally sponsored manpower programs "has demonstrated conclusively . . . that the effect of many large-scale federally designed programs has been to unduly constrict States and localities and prevent them from directing resources to meet their problems." To give States and localities greater flexibility and control, the President said the Administration intends to "institute a new program of manpower revenue sharing within the existing legislative framework."

The 1973 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT includes chapters on: (1) The Employment and Unemployment Record; (2) Manpower Programs: A New Role for States and Localities; (3) Population Changes: A Challenge to Manpower Policy; (4) Spanish-Speaking Americans: Their Man-

power Problems and Opportunities. There are two appendices: (1) a report on recent improvements in the management and information systems of the public employment service, and (2) an extensive array of statistical tables on manpower developments. Highlights of the four chapters follow:

The Employment and Unemployment Record

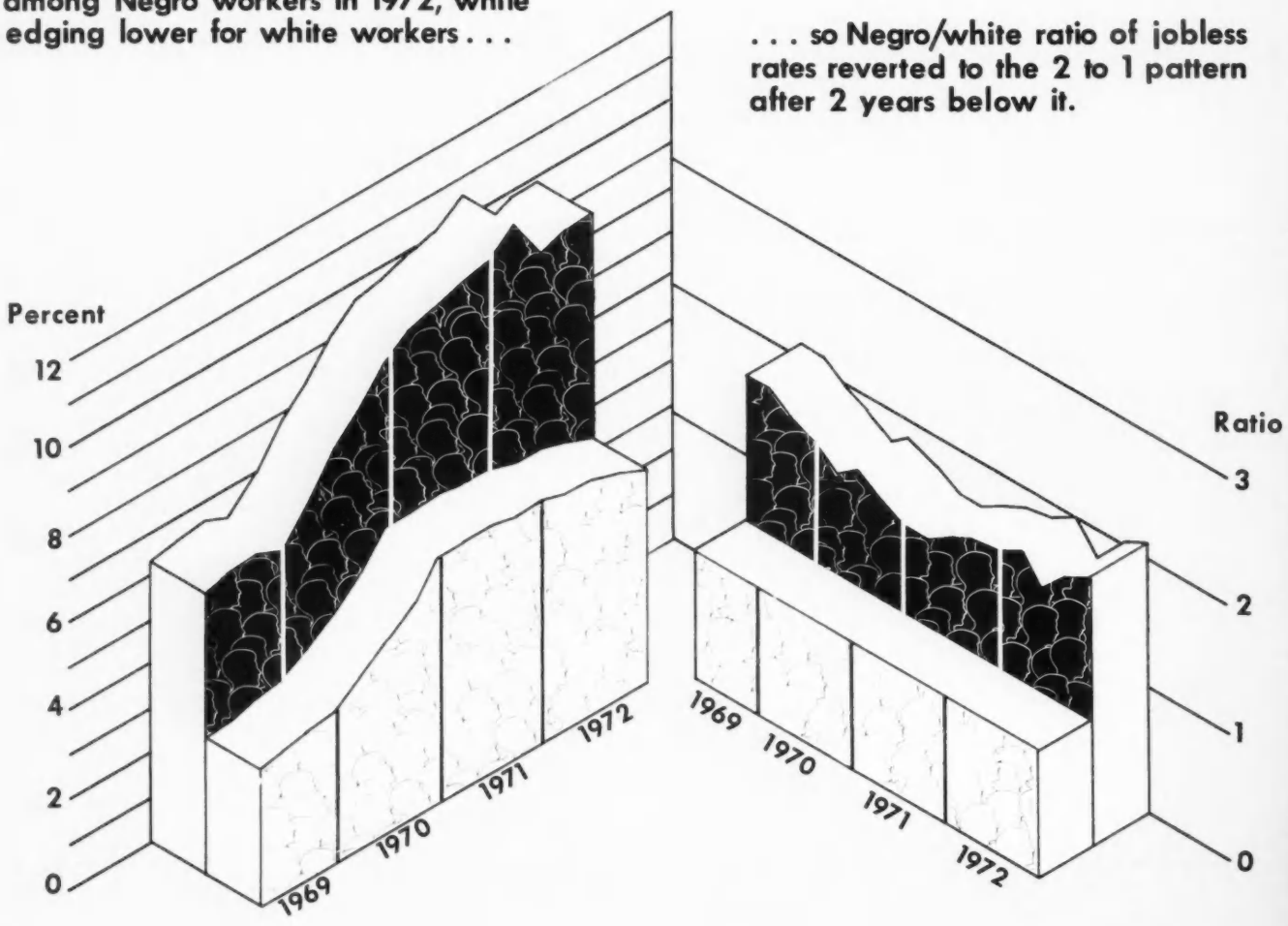
Nearly 82 million people were employed during 1972 (on an annual average basis), an increase of 2.3 million over the year before and the largest year-to-year increase in the past quarter century. The upturn in employment levels occurred in the face of rapid growth of the labor force, which expanded by 2.1 million persons in 1972.

Not all labor force groups benefited equally, however; it was primarily adult workers and those on full-time schedules who profited from the employment expansion, in contrast to 1971, when such gains were concentrated among workers aged 20 to 24 and among those on part-time schedules. Among black workers, unemployment remained close to the previous year's levels (see chart 1), while younger workers and adult women experienced small reductions in joblessness. Employment among Vietnam-era veterans, meanwhile, improved

Chart 1

Unemployment rate remained high among Negro workers in 1972, while edging lower for white workers . . .

. . . so Negro/white ratio of jobless rates reverted to the 2 to 1 pattern after 2 years below it.



Note: Quarterly data are seasonally adjusted.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

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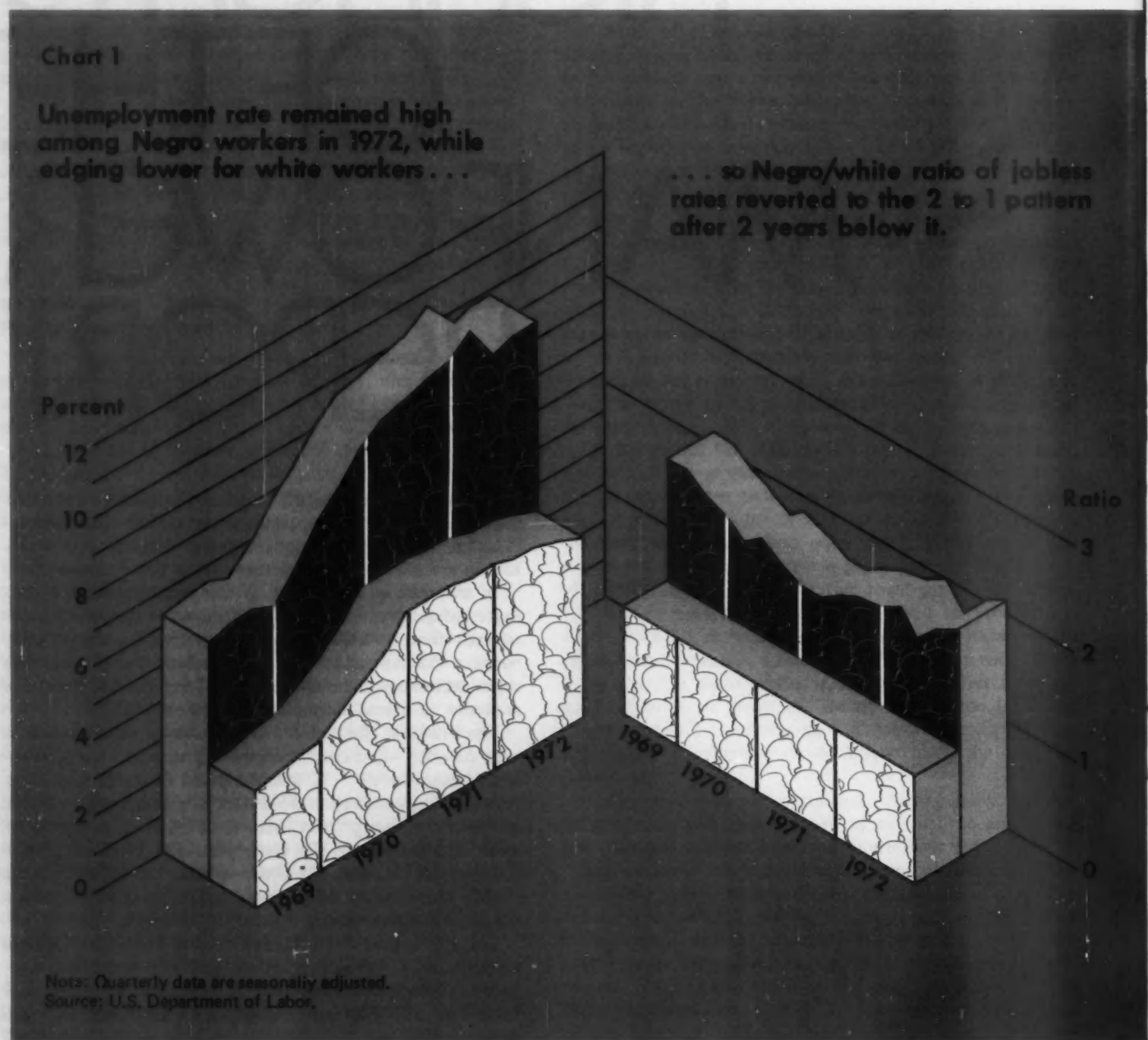


Note: Quarterly data are seasonally adjusted.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

markedly as the jobless rate for veterans under 30 fell to a level comparable with that of nonveterans of the same age group by January 1973.

Service producing industries continued to show steady gains in employment, but over 500,000 jobs were also added in the goods producing sector, which had experienced significant cutbacks the 2 preceding years.

The real income position of many Amercans improved in 1972, following the reduction in price inflation under Phase II of the New Economic Policy. Wages and salaries advanced moderately, but real average weekly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers rose at an annual rate of 3.4 percent between August 1971 and the end of 1972.

Labor productivity picked up by 4 percent between 1971 and 1972, well above the long-term growth rate (which averaged 3 percent a year during the 1950–1970 period). In combination with the moderation in wage increases, this gain in productivity contributed to a significant reduction in the rate of increase in unit labor costs.

Jobless rates among major labor force groups tended to recede slowly but steadily over the year, while the civilian labor force continued to expand, passing the 86 million mark (on an annual average basis) by the year's end. This labor force growth was attributable primarily to a large increase in the working age population, but among other contributing factors were continued reduction in the Armed Forces during the first half of 1972 and increases in labor force participation rates among teenagers and women in response to an improved job market situation.

Manpower Programs: A New Role For States and Localities

In line with the Administration's continuing effort to strengthen the decisionmaking role of States and localities, the principal trend in manpower activities in fiscal 1974 will be the development of a comprehensive manpower delivery system at the local level. Most programs operating in an area will be combined into a single grant under the sponsorship of the mayor, county executive, or other elected officials. The consolidation of program activities that must precede such a change in emphasis will take place through fiscal 1974, and it is expected that the majority of labor market areas will be operating within the revenue sharing framework by the end of the fiscal year.

In the process of gearing-up for the shift to local control, a number of steps have already been taken to increase the involvement of local officials in planning and operating manpower programs. Among these steps have been the funding of about 1,200 manpower planning staff positions at the State and local levels, and the placement of Manpower Planning Councils (formerly CAMPS) under the aegis of State and local officials. In addition, a number of comprehensive manpower projects have been launched in selected test areas.

A reliable system for providing State and local labor market information will be an essential element of a successful manpower revenue sharing approach. For this reason, considerable attention was directed in 1972 to testing and improvement of methods for estimating the size of the work force and volume of unemployment in the various labor market areas. Additional efforts were focused on methods of identifying the numbers and kinds of individuals in need of manpower services within the States and localities. Another significant experiment will test a system intended to provide continuous assessment of local labor market information programs.

Among 1972 program activities aimed at providing services to groups with special problems in finding employment, those for veterans had especially positive results. A six-point program for veterans launched by President Nixon in 1971, set a target of serving just over a million Vietnam-era veterans in fiscal 1972. This goal was exceeded by a healthy margin with the achievement of 1.3 million job placements and enrollments in training.

Public recognition of the severe employment problems of American Indians has increased in recent years. In fiscal 1972, about 68,000 Indians were newly enrolled in Department of Labor manpower programs, nearly twice the total served in fiscal 1970. In a departure from earlier practice, the Manpower Administration decided last year to fund manpower programs for Indians directly from Washington, with the concurrence of regional offices. The new arrangement has been greeted positively by Indian Tribal Councils, as well as by public and private groups concerned with Indians.

An estimated 1.5 million recipients of Aid for Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) are expected to register in the new Work Incentive (WIN) Program in fiscal 1973. The revised WIN effort features a battery of new incentives for participating States, employers, and welfare recipients. The remainder of the current fiscal year will be occupied in screening about half of the new registrants. This will be followed by interviews to appraise employability and skills, then by job referral or job training.

In another major program effort, 226,000 persons obtained employment during fiscal 1972 through the Public Employment Program (PEP), 169,000 of whom were still in PEP-provided jobs at the end of the fiscal year. PEP has been marked by speedy implementation of program goals and an unusual degree of Federal-State-local cooperation.

Population Changes: A Challenge To Manpower Policy

The recent sharp decline in birth rates may be expected to have a marked impact on the size and age-sex distribution of the labor force—not to mention the population at large—in the next few decades.

Of special concern are the implications for the female labor force through the 1980's if the present trend toward the two-child family should persist. Assuming that the birth rate continues at or near its present level, labor force projections for women workers show a 70 percent increase in the size of the potential female labor force aged 25 to 34 during the 1970's alone (in contrast to a projected 48 percent increase for men in the same age group). A development which tends to lend significant reinforcement to these projections has been the last decade's sharp increase in labor force participation by women with small children, with the steepest rise (15.3 percent to 26.9 percent between 1960 and 1972) noted among

women with children under 3 years of age. (See chart 2.)

In recent years, birth rates among the different racial and ethnic groups have tended to converge, with child-bearing expectations among young black wives aged 18 to 24 now at about 2.4 children in comparison with 2.2 children among white wives of comparable age. However, the downward trend is not expected to have a substantial impact on either the number or proportion of young minority-group workers entering the labor force in the next two decades. In fact, the jobseeking picture for minority youth may be complicated still more than it is at present if educational requirements continue to rise, and if the expected influx of women workers results in greater competition for entry-level jobs.

Beyond 1980, the total labor force—again, like the population at large—is expected to "age" somewhat. This anticipated increase in the proportion of adult and older workers is likely to be accompanied by a parallel shift in the nature of manpower needs (with more emphasis, for example, on retraining requirements and on pension portability) and in the kinds of demands placed upon many social institutions, including schools and hospitals.

It should be stressed that present population trends imply a slower rate of overall growth, not an absolute reduction in total population in the years ahead. Instead, the population is expected to rise to about 266 million in the year 2000, up nearly 60 million from its present level. Even with the population expanding more slowly, economic growth is likely to continue apace, with significant increases in per capita disposable income, although somewhat less pressure of demand upon natural resources.

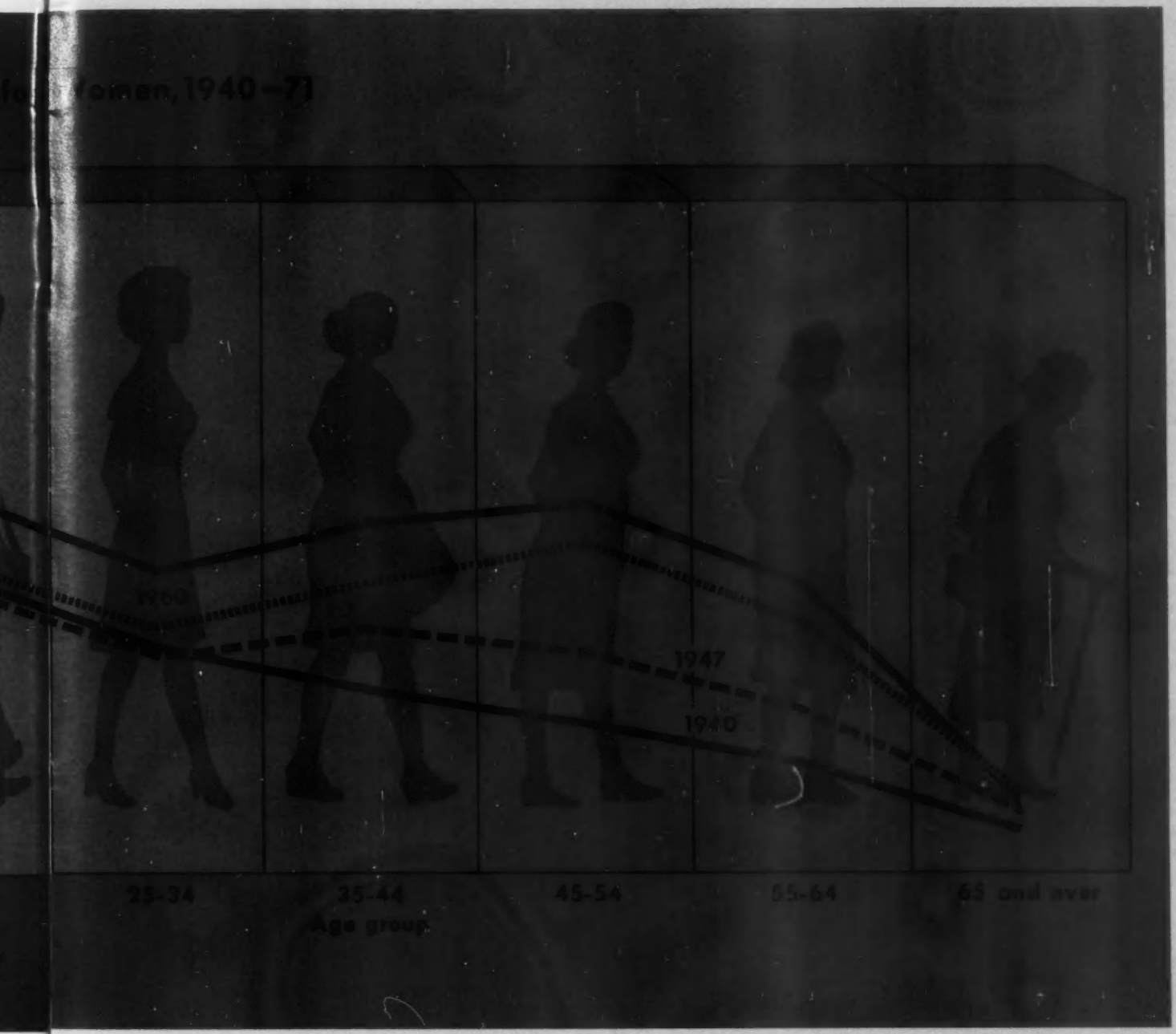
Spanish-Speaking Americans: Their Manpower Problems and Opportunities

The nearly 10 million Spanish-speaking Americans in the mainland United States constitute the country's second largest minority group. Each of this population's major ethnic components—the groups of Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Cuban origin—faces varying degrees of cultural isolation, language handicaps, and discrimination in employment. Inadequate education is another widespread problem, but one compensated to some extent by the recently improved levels of educational attainment and English-language literacy among younger Spanish-speaking Americans of both sexes.

Members of the Spanish-speaking population are heavily concentrated in a few States, constituting about 40 percent of the total population of New Mexico and between 13 and 19 percent of the population in Arizona, California, Colorado, and Texas. In absolute terms, the largest numerical concentrations are to be found in California, Texas, New York, Florida, and New Mexico, in that order. For the total Spanish-language population, levels of urbanization are high (84 percent in 1970, compared with 69 percent for the total population of the Nation). However, Mexican Americans depart somewhat from this general pattern, with 16.5 percent living outside metropolitan areas and 36 percent outside central city areas.

In March 1972, the unemployment rate for workers of Spanish origin was about a third higher than that for the total labor force, with about 250,000 jobless persons in the Spanish-speaking work force, or 8.2 percent of the total. Among men, the incidence of unemployment is particularly high among Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans, somewhat lower among Cubans.

Labor force participation rates indicate that women of Cuban origin are more likely to seek employment than are women of Mexican American or Puerto Rican background. Propensity to work among Spanish-speaking American women, as among women in other major racial and ethnic groups, appears to be closely tied to child-bearing patterns and pre-



vailing levels of education.

Most workers of Spanish background still are concentrated in low-paying occupations, according to 1970 census data, but the number of those employed in professional, other white-collar and skilled occupations is on the upswing.

High rates of unemployment and continued concentration in low-paying jobs have reduced family income among Spanish-speaking Americans to a level far below that of Anglo families. Median income for all families of Spanish origin was $7,500 in 1971, higher than that for blacks ($6,400), but considerably less than that of all white families ($10,700).

In an effort to overcome the impediments to wider employment opportunities for the Spanish-speaking population, federally sponsored programs are supplying many jobless and underemployed workers with skill training, English-language instruction, and remedial basic education. Other special projects have been mounted for Spanish-speaking Vietnam-era veterans, newly arrived refugees and immigrants, and migrant farmworkers. These activities have been undertaken in addition to the full array of Department of Labor manpower programs, which enrolled nearly 250,000 Spanish-speaking Americans in fiscal 1972. □

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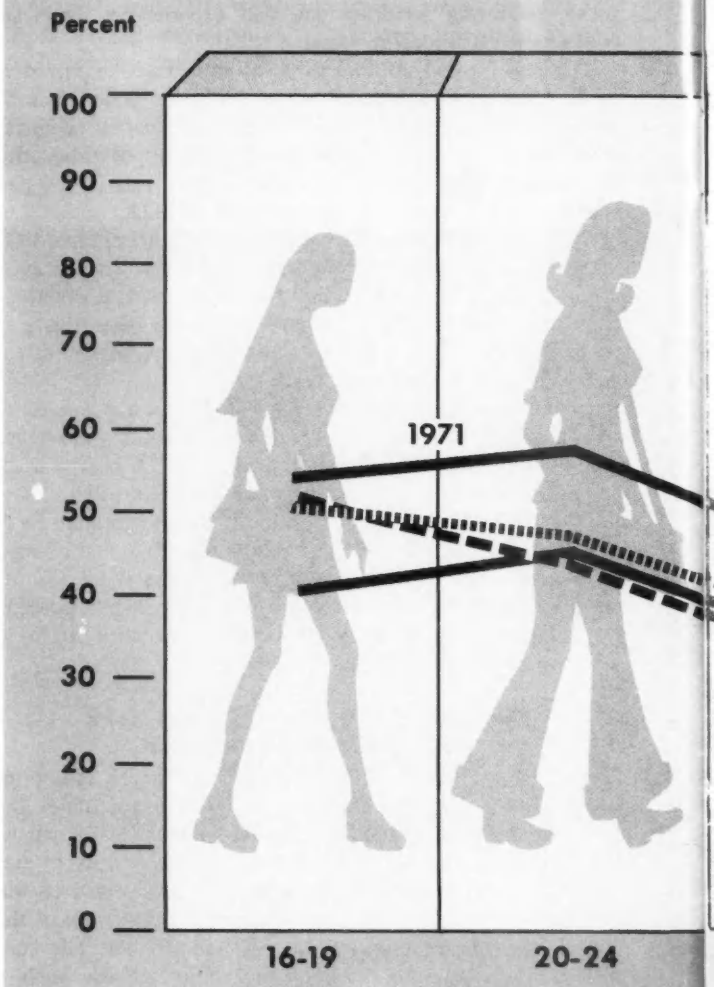
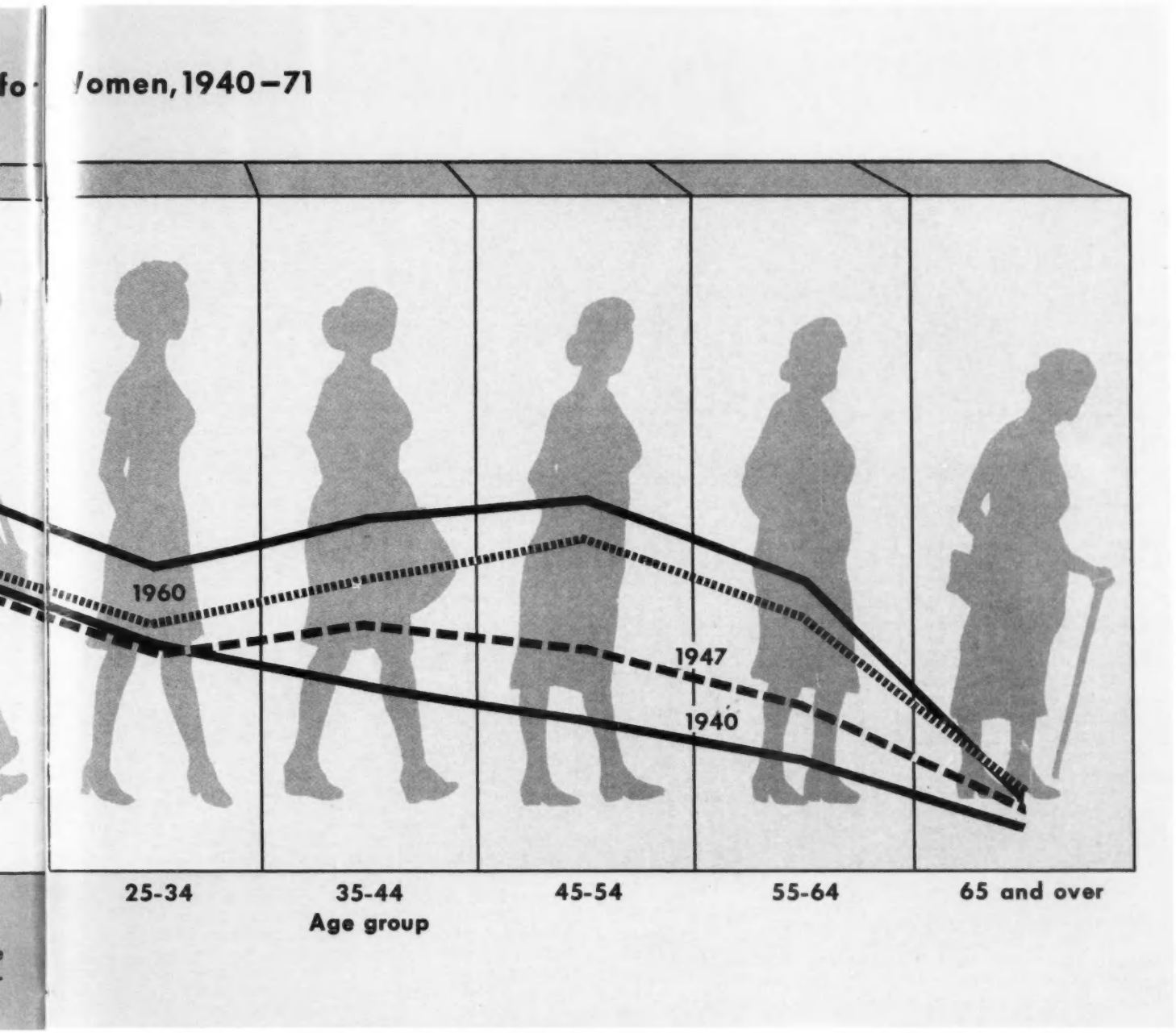
Chart 2

Labor Force Participation Rates fo



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Data for 1940 are from the decennial census of the U.S. Department of Commerce.



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News & Notes

The job market looks bright for this year's college graduates. The College Placement Council expects a 16 percent rise over last year in the hiring of college graduates. A strong increase in demand for graduates with bachelor's degrees also is foreseen by Dr. Frank S. Endicott, professor emeritus of education at Northwestern University. Dr. Endicott's survey showed especially good prospects for engineers, women, and members of minority groups.

* * *

About one-third of the Nation's work force is covered by recent U.S. Department of Labor rules and regulations designed to remedy religious and ethnic discrimnation by Federal contractors. Under the guidelines, these contractors must determine whether members of various religious and ethnic groups--primarily but not exclusively of eastern, middle, and southern European ancestry such as Jews, Catholics, Italians, Greeks, and Slavs--are getting fair consideration for jobs. If deficiencies are found, employers are called on to undertake positive recruitment activities. The guidelines, issued under Executive Order 11246, cover more than 250,000 firms engaged in Federal contract work, including contractors and subcontractors on federally assisted construction projects.

* * *

The Veterans Administration reports that more than 48,000 ex-servicemen trained for policemen, firemen, and related protective services under the GI bill in fiscal year 1972.

* * *

A 4-year construction trades apprenticeship in the District of Columbia is now worth $40,000. That's how much money an apprentice would be paid while learning his trade on the job. The figure is based on an average $3.50 an hour starting rate for apprentices in construction trades--half of the average $7 hourly rate paid journeymen in those trades in the District of Columbia. Apprentices usually start at 50 percent of the journeyman wage and receive periodic increases that bring their pay almost to the journeyman level by the time they complete training. Construction trade jobs include carpenter, electrician, bricklayer, cement mason, plasterer, lather, operating engineer, plumber, roofer, sheet metal worker, iron worker, asbestos worker, glazier, and painter.

* * *

Manpower programs now being operated on a national basis by three organizations will be put under local control when the national contracts expire late this summer, the Manpower Administration has announced. The three contracts affected are with the Urban League for on-the-job training, the Opportunities Industrialization Centers for classroom training, and Jobs for Progress (Operation SER) for counseling, testing, and placement services. When the national contracts expire, refunding of individual projects will be up to the elected heads of local government in each of the 130 cities where one or more of the programs operate. Under the decentralized manpower revenue sharing program that will begin July 1, local governments will receive a block grant to enable them to allocate money for specific local manpower needs as they see fit.

* * *

Marion McAllister has the inside track on becoming the first woman motorman in the 69-year history of New York's subway system. Now in motorman training, Mrs. McAllister has worked for the Transit Authority since 1969, first as a change-booth clerk and then as one of only six women towermen, a job involving setting switches and signaling train information from operations towers. She took the Civil Service promotional test for motorman along with 1,083 men, and placed 19th on the list of 259 who passed.

* * *

Of 1.9 million new enrollees in manpower work and training programs in 1972, blacks numbered 834,100.

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New Mexico's State Personnel Board has asked for the help of Indian tribal leaders in increasing the number of Indians in State jobs.

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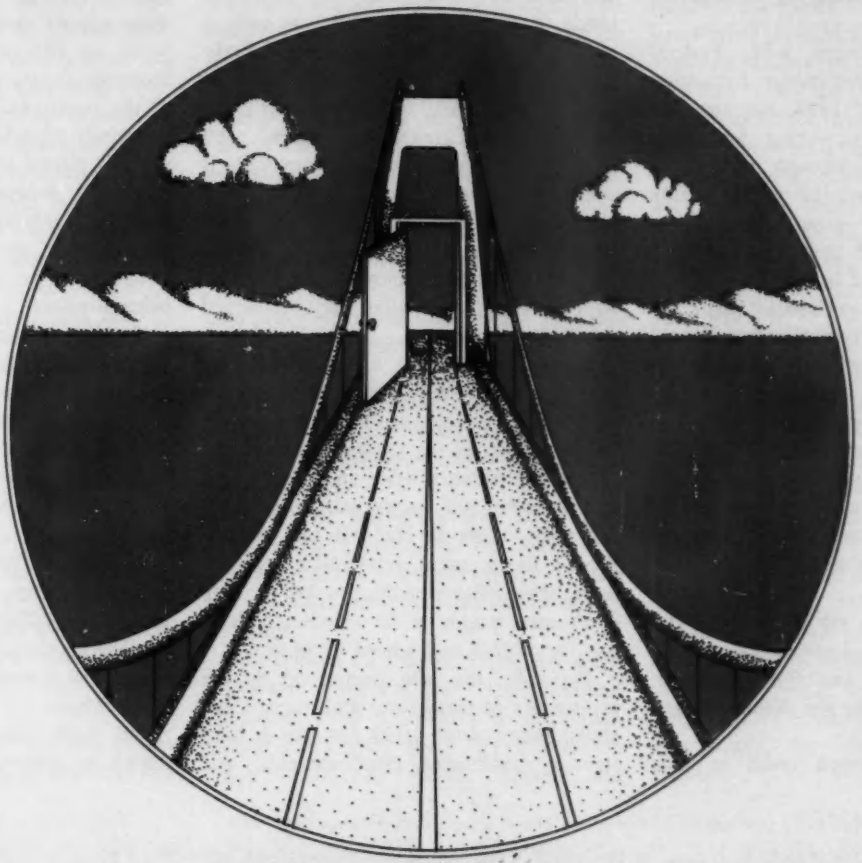


Building Bridges To Work

Akron Public Schools Help Students Cross the Gap From Classroom to Jobs

For 12 months a year the Akron-Summit County, Ohio public schools run a job placement project to help disadvantaged high school seniors and recent graduates or dropouts get jobs to stay in school or make a good transition from school to work. Since the spring of 1970, when it began, the project has helped more than 3,000 of these youth to get jobs. All needed the special help because they were burdened in some way by physical or emotional handicaps, educational deficiencies, or a background of poverty.

According to Raymond A. Wasil, project director, this program's success offers a prime example of what can happen when public schools make an organized effort to tap existing community resources on behalf of students who are leaving school or who need summer jobs. The Akron area schools rely heavily upon the expertise and services of local business and industry as well as those of the Ohio Bureau of Employment Services. These close relationships have helped identify the various pathways into training or jobs and have kept the program relevant to real needs in the workplace, Wasil says.

The school effort serves youth from 10 county and nine city high schools. The chief tools are counselor identification of each student's needs, centralized data gathering on student capabilities and interests and on job openings, pre-employment clinics for in-school youth, and job-hunting clinics for those who graduated or

dropped out of school during the previous year.

The project, funded with Federal money under the Vocational Education Act Amendments of 1968, has received $279,000 in grants covering operations from April 1970 through September 1973. Only disadvantaged youth qualify for assistance under grant terms. These young people, Wasil points out, are the least likely to succeed in their attempts to get work unless they get special help.

Each June the Akron-Summit County schools' job placement department clears the decks for action on behalf of a new group of young people. The department drops the names of the disadvantaged students who graduated the year before or who dropped out before graduating that year, and begins working with the incoming senior class and youth who drop out of that class.

This is a full-time job because the department has only five placement specialists to cover 19 city and county schools. Its only funding is for the disadvantaged students' project.

Placing disadvantaged youth in jobs, and satisfying both youth and employer needs, is an around-the-clock as well as an around-the-calendar task, Wasil finds. At the end of a workday, employers often find they will need extra help early the next morning. Coming up with the right kind of help for these emergency calls is one way the school project builds good employer relations, Wasil says. And while such jobs are usually temporary, he has found that when employers are satisfied with the results, a student may be offered regular employment.

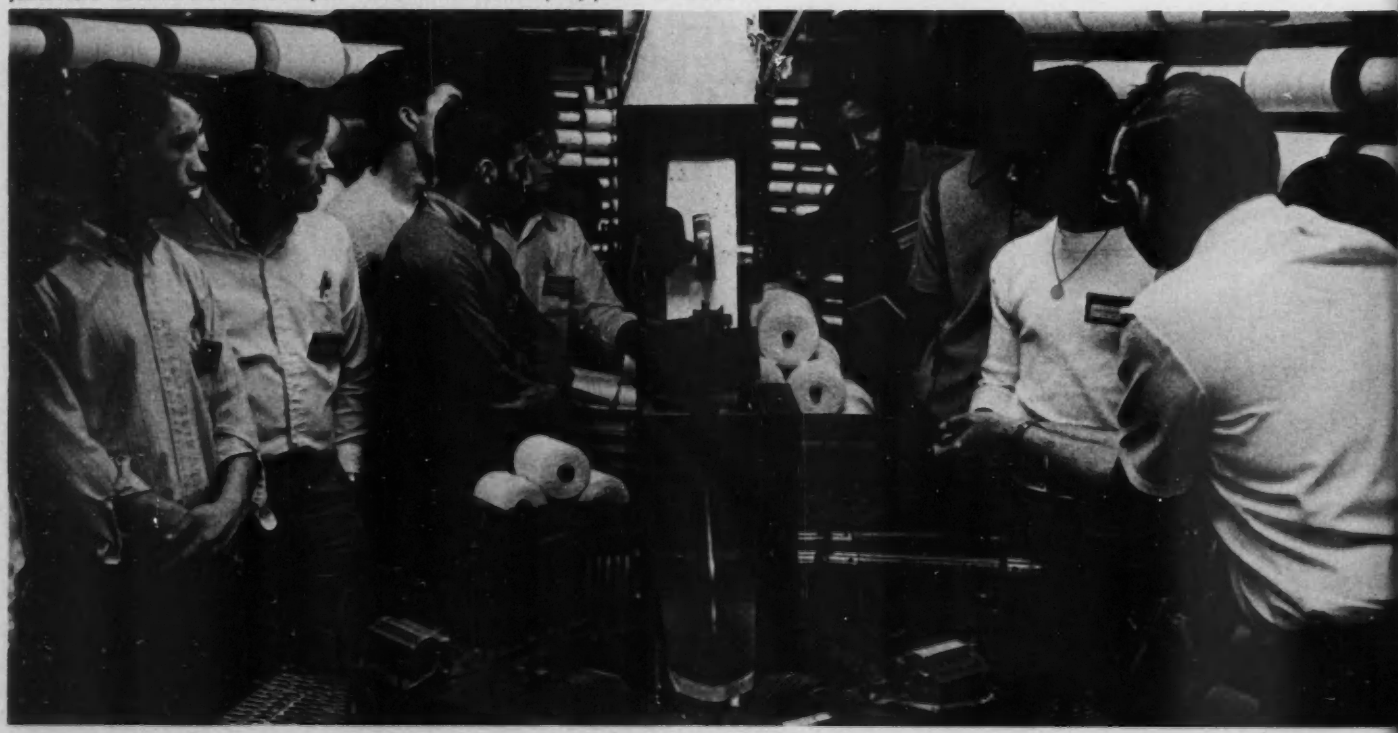
All-year operations are essential, the project director says, if lines of communication to employers are to be kept open. A great many of the job calls to the project are for summer work on golf courses, in nurseries, and restaurants where employment drops in the fall and winter. What's more, many students can't continue their schooling in the fall if they don't earn money in the summer to help pay for clothes and school supplies.

Typically, the jobs turned up by the project are at entry level and require few skills. Many of the youth get jobs in food service, drycleaning establishments, and service stations. Others get sales jobs in auto supply and department stores or work on the production lines of local factories. Grocery stores hire a great many of the youth, as do local offices. Wasil is especially proud of the fact that the project has placed youth who had especially poor job prospects because they have learning disabilities. Some of these young people now work on production lines where tasks are repetitive and boring to other workers.

To ease transportation problems, the project staff tries to locate jobs close to the young workers' homes. The placement specialists operate out of five separate field offices, where they work intensively with area employers, high school counselors and teachers, and individual students.

Placement specialists also run the pre-employment clinics for seniors and job-hunting clinics for dropouts and unemployed graduates. For textbooks, the clinics use pamphlets done in comic book style. There are 13 pamphlets, all prepared with advice from industry and drawn by school art classes. "Let Your

Getting firsthand exposure to industry is one way that youth in the Akron-Summit County job placement project learn what it takes to get jobs. Here students tour the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company plant in Akron.



Fingers Do the Walking," turned out with the help of the Ohio Bell Telephone Company, tells young jobseekers how to use the yellow pages of their telephone directory as a guide to employment opportunities in the Akron area. Local newspapers helped with a pamphlet explaining the use of want ads in finding a suitable job. Other pamphlets tell how to fill out job applications and write resumes, how to dress and act during job interviews, and where to get various kinds of specialized help in the community.

Much of the pamphlet material and other content of the job-hunting and preemployment clinics grew out of past efforts by local industries and schools to get better acquainted with each other's needs. One particularly helpful program ran for several years at Goodyear Tire and Rubber and other large area firms, Wasil says. In this program, school counselors spent 8 weeks visiting major company departments to learn about their current work practices, skill requirements, and the like.

The experience helped the schools do a better job of preparing students for work and opened channels of communication which Wasil's project has put to good use. Representatives of leading Akron firms are members of an active advisory committee for the placement project and help it stay relevant to the needs of business in its efforts to find jobs for students and dropouts.

In addition, project staff work closely with the Ohio Bureau of Employment Services (OBES), Wasil says. His placement specialists, who all have a business background, spend a day at OBES as part of their training, then continue working with the agency on job placements or skill training under the Manpower Development and Training Act for youth in the school project.

Placement specialists also work with disadvantaged youth in the Manpower Administration's Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) in-school and out-of-school programs.

Job-related data on students and dropouts are obtained by the placement specialists from counselors in each high school district who draw the information from cumulative school records and teacher interviews. These data are then transferred to IBM cards so that they are readily available for use.

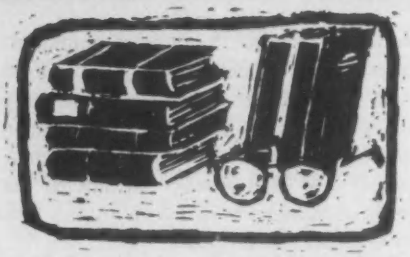
When jobs are available, placement specialists select two or three young persons in the school district to send out for an interview. Youth abilities and interests are carefully matched with employer needs, Wasil says. One result is that many satisfied Akron employers now use the project as a regular means of locating good workers.

Wasil says that single copies of the materials produced by the project can be obtained by other school systems without charge from the Akron-Summit County Public Schools Job Placement Department, 80 West Center St., Akron, Ohio 44308. These materials include the 13 pamphlets produced for project clinics as well as the following administrative reports: "Model for Implementation of School Placement Services," "Guidelines for Conducting Pre-Employment Clinics and Job-Hunting Clinics," and "Data Processing Techniques and Procedures for Job Placement and Guidance." □

Project director Raymond Wasil films a student practicing a job interview. Mock interviews are filmed so students can see how they appear to employers when they apply for work.

Placement specialists from the school job project find out about job requirements at Ohio Bell Telephone Company from two of the company's women employees. The four specialists spent a day learning personnel needs at Ohio Bell, which hires many young people right out of school.

Book Reviews



Shots in the Dark

Drug Abuse and Your Company

by Susan Halpern

American Management Association, Inc., New York, 1972. 150 pages, $11.50.

This book is a narrative synthesis of the results of a survey conducted in 1971 by the American Management Association to determine the incidence and scope of, and the responses to, drug abuse (excluding alcohol) in industry. The primary data base for the survey and the book was a questionnaire mailed to over 1,000 organizations (to which 231 responded in detail), including banks, insurance companies, manufacturers, and a wide variety of other firms, and personal interviews with some 75 individuals ranging from company executives to medical directors, directors of security, union officials, and former drug addicts. Additional material for the book was gathered from a literature and research review.

The first section of the book boils down the collected data into easily readable narrative descriptions of the magnitude of the problem, age and background of abusers, drugs involved, company characteristics, company responses, and the costs of drug abuse. The picture that emerges is disturbing, but not altogether surprising. Drug abuse on the job, as elsewhere in our society, is costly. It is most prevalent among, although not limited to, the young (under 30); it is concentrated most heavily in urban and suburban areas, and it is increasing steadily. Institutional responses to drug abuse are tremendously varied, although most commonly characterized by misinformation, inconsistency, and punitiveness.

Next the book moves into a useful detailed discussion of techniques used in pre-employment interviews and on the job to detect drug users. The pros and cons, the practicalities, and the costs of each method are considered, based upon the experience of companies using them. Two major themes which emerge are the sensitive and sometimes confusing issue of confidentiality, and the concern of creating a "witch hunt" atmosphere within the institution.

The largest section of the book tells how various businesses are dealing with the drug problem. Acknowledging that the majority of respondents have no formal policy and no specific programs, Miss Halpern discusses a wide range of responses such as policy formation, departmental roles, actions against drug abusers, attempts at rehabilitation, and community efforts.

The final chapter is devoted to recommendations for controlling and dealing with drug abuse. Although based upon the experiences of companies and the avaliable literature, and directed towards industry, the recommendations are general enough to be useful for any institution facing drug abuse problems.

Despite the value of much of the material in the book, some caveats are necessary about the data and the generalizations that stem from them. Since only 231 out of over 1,000 companies responded, one must raise the possibility of a sampling bias. And since the actual questionnaire and interview formats are not included in the book, it is impossible to evaluate these tools. Also, responses to drug questionnaires often can be more accurately described as best guesses or considered impressions than as facts.

Miss Halpern makes some unsupported general statements that can lead to harmful stereotyping. For example, in discussing the hiring of minorities, the data reveal that only 23 of the 93 companies involved "found a correlation between drug abuse and hard-core employees." Nevertheless, Miss Halpern goes on to say that, "Although no conclusive evidence exists . . . management must remain alert to the possibility of such a connection. Drug abuse has been endemic to the ghetto for many years; it is a most serious problem there."

Overall, however, the book should prove a helpful resource to any organization struggling with the multi-faceted problems of drug abuse. The combination of Miss Halpern's descriptive synthesis, the broad data base, and the presentation of actual incidents, programs, and policies may help both large and small firms to begin to break through the clouds of ignorance and helplessness that so often shroud the issue of drug use, and to choose directions that are more constructive for the employee and more productive for the employer.

Barak Wolff and Scott H. Nelson

Transition and Tribulation

Urban Multi-Unit Colleges: Adaptation for the '70's

by Ernest G. Palola and Arthur R. Oswald

Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California, Berkeley, 1972. 128 pages, $3.00 (paper).

The rapid development of multi-unit urban community colleges during the past decade has vastly increased opportunities for college admission for disadvantaged urban blacks. This phenomenon accounts for a large share of the sharp rise in college enrollment of blacks during recent years. However, as this book makes clear, the swift change from a predominantly white to a predominantly black student population has confronted urban community colleges with a host of new problems, unforeseen and difficult to solve.

To meet the needs of these severely disadvantaged students is proving a difficult and in many cases frustrating experience for both faculty and students. The authors report that many faculty members are uninformed or confused about the needs of students with extremely severe educational and cultural as well as economic handicaps, and have found it difficult or impossible to adapt their courses to serve the much wider range of capabilities and interests represented in the new student body.

Another major problem is the tightening financial bind as community support for these schools becomes fragmented in the face of the phenomenon of "going black" and its attendant shifts in the role and mission of the community college and the increase in costly services required by disadvantaged students.

Educators are still struggling with the quest for an effective and viable approach to meeting the needs of disadvantaged students and the lack of systematic information about the results achieved by different approaches is a serious handicap to those seeking guidance. This small book seeks to provide insights into the problems and the programs that appear to be most effective in dealing with them, at least as measured by dropout rates and apparent community acceptance.

Detailed information is provided on relatively successful programs based on a survey of multi-unit college districts in six major metropolitan areas: Chicago, Cleveland, Dallas, Miami, St. Louis, and Oakland. Despite considerable repetition and somewhat uneven reports, and perhaps too much enthusiasm about efforts still too new to appraise for long-term viability and success, the information on recruitment, retention, and preparation of disadvantaged students should prove helpful to educators and community leaders seeking to learn from the experience of other institutions what kinds of programs and services are likely to prove most effective.

Rose Wiener

More Than Child's Play

Day Care for Infants

by E. Belle Evans and George Saia

Beacon Press, Boston, 1972. 153 pages and appendices, $6.95.

This is a practical, how-to-do-it book that will be valuable to anyone interested in setting up a day care center to include infants under age 3. Much of the material on pro-

gram, materials, and classroom arrangement also concerns teachers of preschoolers, while parents considering day care for their babies will welcome the advice on how to discriminate between quality and "caretaker" facilities.

The documentation and detail on day care management may not interest the general public, but the message carried by the authors' facts and figures should: Quality care, especially for infants, is enormously expensive (up to $3,000 per year per child) and requires great human input. Public funding is essential, as is the thoughtful development of uniform standards to cover not only the physical setup, but also the essential and intangible matter of "atmosphere" without which optimum baby care is impossible.

The book is billed as "the case for infant day care and a practical guide," yet it is clearly written for an audience already sold on the value of infant day care. The authors' arguments are presented in an initial chapter of 11 pages: "Multiple mothering" in situations other than 24-hour institutions has not been proven harmful and indeed has more basis in social-cultural patterns (the large family including several adults) than does today's two- and one-parent families; a child care center can offer far more in terms of child-oriented activities and environment than the typical home; the fear of turning out regiments of alike little people is based on a fallacy—individuality is fostered by building a child's self-image and feelings of competency, not by isolating him from extra-family influences.

The overriding pragmatic argument, of course, cites the millions of mothers of preschoolers who work, usually of necessity rather than choice. The authors also feel strongly that a mother who does not find 24-hour child care fulfilling should have other options.

Two surveys, of selected infant care centers abroad and in the United States, complete the first section of the book. Features common to the best programs are a low adult-child ratio (1-4 is recommended) and the use of auxiliary services and personnel. But the larger message that comes through is that there are more ways than one to provide good care. For instance, U.S. centers range from 16 to 140 children; in one, most of the staff are lay mothers while another employs only registered nurses. Some programs put heavy stress on cognitive and sensory-motor skills, others favor a more relaxed homelike atmosphere.

The second part of the book brims with answers to practical questions: Which agency is responsilbe for licensing in each State? Where can one find out about Federal funding? What qualifications are required of teachers? (Most States demand a high school diploma.) What qualifications do the authors recommend (personality characteristics like maturity, stability, warmth, energy)?

Sample high- and low-cost budgets are given in considerable detail, and the sections on classroom arrangement and equipment are especially useful since so few preschool manuals discuss the needs of children under 3. Fifty pages of appendices follow, providing the prospective day care center director with a wealth of information—sample application forms, menus, bibliographies, and the like.

The authors do not go beyond the immediate scope of the book to discuss related and controversial questions such as the function of breastfeeding in bringing the working mother closer to her baby or problems of guilt or abdication of responsibility in parents of children in day care. But they have produced a useful guidebook on a subject of growing national importance and attention.

Anna Coatsworth Larkin

Many Paths to Same End

Doing Your Own School, A Practical Guide to Starting and Operating a Community School

by The Great Atlantic and Pacific School Conspiracy

Beacon Press, Boston, 1972. 151 pages, illustrated, $5.95.

The do-it-yourself movement, which has caught up thousands of neophytes in a vast array of projects from home carpentry to candlemaking, in recent years has launched out onto somewhat more challenging terrain. A great many do-it-yourself schools have cropped up around the country, among them ghetto "storefront academies" where volunteers teach school dropouts, nongraded elementary schools for children of mixed racial and economic backgrounds, and high schools operating in the Summerhillian tradition in which students are free to decide on their own ways of learning.

The Great Atlantic and Pacific School Conspiracy, six persons who have worked in alternative schools, have drawn on their own experience and that of 12 "new" schools to put together a guide on the major do's and don'ts involved in shaping one's own educational enterprise. Their low-keyed book covers such basics of school organization as planning, administration, staffing, curriculum, student selection, rules governing students, and funding. The authors round out this presentation with a chapter on other resources available to those who are brave enough or determined enough to continue planning an alternate school after thinking through much that is involved, as this book should stimulate them to do.

One lesson that has been learned, the authors say, is that nonprofessionals and inexperienced people can create and run excellent institutions to educate their children. What it takes to bring this about, in the authors' view, are the reduction of high-sounding rhetoric to concrete plans, the arrival at a common purpose with other persons involved, and plenty of hard work. In relating the approaches used by 12 different schools to the basic components in building an educational system, the book makes it clear that the ways to this end are otherwise various. Some of the schools have teacher-centered learning; schools adopting theories developed by Maria Montessori use environment-centered learning; still others feature student-centered learning and allow each student to make the major decisions about how he learns and when.

It is hard to understand how this slender volume, with its miniscule accounts of how a few schools moved from hopes to reality, can be more than a crude marker for people who would cut open their own educational paths. There is no assessment of alternative schools that have failed. Moreover, the book's quiet tone fails to reflect the terrible turmoil that must occur as seemingly like-minded parents try to get together to create their own educational systems.

The strongest warning sounded is in the chapter on funding, where it is noted that no adequate solution to financing alternative schools has yet been uncovered, and that "the truth of the matter is that . . . many people spend more energy on fund raising than on education."

As a preliminary guide, however, the book should be useful to those who—for whatever reasons—wish to start their own schools.

Patricia Marshall

The Reviewers

Barak Wolff and Scott H. Nelson are the principal health service administrator and principal medical officer, respectively, of the Job Corps.

Rose Wiener is a labor economist with the Manpower Administration's Office of Research and Development.

Anna Coatsworth Larkin teaches at a day care center where two of her children are enrolled.

Patricia Marshall is assistant editor of MANPOWER.

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the appropriate organization at the following addresses: Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210; Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212; or the organization specified in the listing. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Health Careers Guidebook Third Edition, 1972

This 166-page joint effort of the Manpower Administration and the National Institutes of Health incorporates the many changes and advances in occupations and careers in the health field since the second edition was published in 1965. It is a valuable resource for high school students, counselors, and management and personnel workers interested in the health field. $2.25.

Manpower Programs in Rural Areas

Manpower Administration booklet describes 11 manpower programs, both exploratory and ongoing, and services designed exclusively for rural areas, and nine nationwide manpower programs which serve both rural and urban areas.

Handling of Rail Disputes Under the Railway Labor Act, 1950-69

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin provides a descriptive and statistical account of the industrial relations, mediation, work stoppages, and emergency dispute experience of the railroad industry under the Railway Labor Act for fiscal years 1950-69. Specify BLS Bulletin 1753. $1.25.

The Pre-Retirement Years, Volume 3

Third progress report on a Manpower Administration 5-year longitudinal study of the labor market experience of a national sample of middle-aged men, 45-59 years of age. This report utilizes data collected by mail questionnaire in mid-1968 and personal reinterviews in mid-1969 to describe the magnitude and patterns of change in the status of the respondents that have occurred over the first 3 years of the study and to identify some of the causes and consequences of these changes. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 15. $2.00.

National Survey of Professional, Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Pay, March 1972

Bureau of Labor Statistics 13th annual report provides nationwide salary averages and distributions for 77 work level catgeories covering 19 occupations. Information relates to March 1972 and is representative of establishments throughout the United States, except Alaska and Hawaii. Specify BLS Bulletin 1764. $1.25.

Directory of Unions and Employee Associations, 1971

Bureau of Labor Statistics 147-page biennial directory includes an extensive survey of union membership in 1970, trend data, and, for the first time, a count of members that belong to major professional and State employee associations. Also describes structure of the labor movement and reports on recent trade union developments. Lists each national and international union and 22 employee associatons, giving address, telephone number, principal officers, total membership, number of locals, frequency of conventions, publications, and other information. Separate listing covers AFL-CIO State and territorial bodies. Contains extensive statistical appendixes. Specify BLS Bulletin 1750. $2.00.

BLS Publications, 1886-1971

Bulletin provides in one volume a complete catalog of the major publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics — numbered bulletins, numbered reports, and periodicals —and a subject index of bulletins and reports. Specify BLS Bulletin 1749. $1.50.

Older Workers—Operation Mainstream Can Help

Manpower Administration leaflet explains Operation Mainstream, a program especially for older workers, other manpower programs, special employment services for older workers, and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act. 20 cents.

Municipal Collective Bargaining Agreements in Large Cities

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin provides data from a study of public employee labor contracts below the Federal level and provides data on a wide variety of collective bargaining provisions. Specify BLS Bulletin 1759. $1.25.

Suggestions for Control of Turnover and Absenteeism

Manpower Administration booklet provides information concerning the ever-present problem of turnover and absenteeism. It is essentially an updating of *Suggestions for Control of Turnover and Absenteeism* published in 1962. Incorporates use of checklists for evaluation and identification of factors leading to problems of turnover and absenteeism. $1.00.

EST—Engineers, Scientists, and Technicians

Manpower Administration folder tells how the Technology Mobilization and Reemployment Program works to help unemployed engineers, scientists, and technicians in all fields get jobs. Has special messages to employers on how to find the right worker and to engineers, scientists, and technicians on how to find the right job.

Manpower Planning for Wastewater Treatment Plants

A manual for manpower planners in State or metropolitan water pollution control agencies, describes how to obtain needed data, analyze them, develop forecasts of manpower and training needs, and plan programs for manpower recruiting, training, and utilization in the field of water pollution control. Also defines the relationships of the Federal, State, and local environmental, labor, and education agencies in the planning and implementation of manpower programs in this field. Available free from Manpower Planning Branch, Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460.

Employment and Earnings, States and Areas, 1939-71

Bureau of Labor Statistics 10th comprehensive historical reference volume of State and area employment and earnings statistics presents detailed industry data on 221 major labor areas. Groups together information available under the Current Employment Statistics Program for a State or area. A special section containing graphic and summary tabular material precedes the main body of statistics. Specify BLS Bulletin 1370-9. $7.50.

Unemployment Insurance Tax Rates by Industry, 1969

Annual Manpower Administration booklet contains statistical information on average covered employment, total covered wages, taxable wages, and average State tax rates, by industry and State for calendar year 1969.

Handbook of Selective Placement

U.S. Civil Service Commission publication presents, in one convenient reference document, all the significant facts about Federal employment of the physically handicapped, mentally restored, mentally retarded, and rehabilitated public offender. Specify CSC/BRE-12. 60 cents.

★U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 1973: 512-308/13

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How fares the older male worker in today's labor market? One of the best ways to find out is to select a group of workers, follow them over a period of time, and record and analyze their experiences. That is exactly what Ohio State University is doing under a research contract with the Manpower Administration. For a report on what the study has discovered thus far, see ***A Moving Picture of the Middle Years***, in this issue of MANPOWER.

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